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ABSTRACT

Many complex issues and imperatives face those individuals responsible for the development, maintenance and functioning of guidance, counseling, and pupil/student personnel services in today's educational institutions. The role of the counselor is critical and deals with a variety of areas such as: (1) life/career development concerns of students; (2) development and evaluation of systematic guidance programs both in urban and rural settings; (3) research in guidance; (4) elementary guidance and parent education; (5) programs for minority students, (6) career resource centers and the use of computer-assisted information delivery systems; and (7) sex-fair counseling programs and practices. (HLM)

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NEW IMPERATIVES FOR GUIDANCE

Garry R. Walz
and Libby Benjamin,
Editors

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FOREWORD

An imperative is defined by Webster as something, "not to be avoided or evaded." Many imperatives exist for contemporary guidance--issues and concerns which can be avoided or evaded only at our peril. We even know what most of them are. Ask counselors what they believe must be done in guidance and they will quickly compile a list of impressive proportions. Ask counselor educators, and they will shower you with needs for new training resources. Ask supervisors or directors of guidance, and they will immediately respond with a host of needed program initiatives. These perceptions of guidance leaders and practitioners are invaluable. What we need, however, is to go beyond awareness: We need to identify steps that we can take to turn the imperatives into action.

As originally envisaged, this publication was to be a basic resource for the New Imperatives for Guidance conference for state supervisors and directors of guidance, jointly sponsored by the ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse and the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Planned to contain a few chapters that identified imperatives in different guidance areas, the document underwent a transition as we began discussing our thoughts with people about the country. "An imperative itself." "Terrific idea--but you must include recommendations for action." "What you are planning is great, but it should include more imperatives." And so it went. People were excited, turned on, feeling that this publication could provide direction for our profession. Our consultants agreed that the book (notice that it was no longer merely a resource--it had now become a book) should identify imperatives in critical guidance areas, explore the state of our knowledge regarding the imperatives, provide program and practice examples of current efforts to achieve them, and end with hard-hitting recommendations for action for each constituency of our guidance foursome--counselors, counselor educators, guidance directors, and state supervisors. There was broad consensus that the volume should leave readers with clear vision as to what they could be doing now to insure that new imperatives in guidance would no longer be avoided or evaded.

We gulped. We proceeded. A modified dephi survey helped us to narrow the areas of focus into a feasible number.

We spent many hours planning what these final topics should be. We had good rationale for including at least twenty chapters. We fantasized the ideal, then dispiritedly counted our pennies--financial prudence demanded something much shorter. We reviewed needs and concerns, considered what would make the book useful to many publics, and explored author availability. This present work is the result.

Knowing your itinerary in advance can make the journey more enjoyable and rewarding. The following brief synopsis of the chapter contents should help you anticipate the reading pleasure that awaits you.

Guidance today is at a crossroads, and in the first chapter Norm Gysbers traces its development from an ancillary, crisis-oriented service to a comprehensive developmental program based on personal and societal needs. The focus is on life career development, and the need for comprehensive programs that deal with developmental concerns and needs of individuals throughout the life span.

Bob Campbell then outlines the rationale and criteria for establishing guidance programs that respond to life-long developmental needs, lists examples of exemplary programs, suggests major resources for learning about these and other new programs, and reviews adoption considerations.

While guidance is advancing its contributions to clients, it must also expand and strengthen the research base from which guidance practices are derived. Ed Herr focuses in on the need for guidance research, suggests "must" areas in which research should be undertaken, presents knowledge generalizations growing out of existing research, and proposes ways guidance personnel can put research findings to use.

Programs and practices of worth should be open to scrutiny, which means evaluation, which, in turn, means systematic planning. Dispelling some of the myths that have tended to discourage a systematic approach to guidance, Anita Mitchell makes evaluation look easy as she suggests ways guidance personnel can plan, structure, implement, and evaluate programs with a view toward moving the profession toward accountability.

These first four chapters provide the basis for those that follow. From the generalized overview of where the profession stands today, of what the criteria for effective guidance programs are, of how research can contribute to guidance, and of how we can go about program development systematically, we move to specific kinds of programs that are targeted to the needs of special groups.

Our first area of emphasis is rural and small schools. Rural communities--really, diverse groups of people with widely differing social and economic characteristics, possess many strengths, but their limitations cause them to have very special kinds of needs. Harry Drier and Jim Altschuld outline some of the issues that need to be addressed in order to provide systematic guidance services for those who live in rural America.

Billie Jackson and Lea Reeves present a chapter on elementary guidance, analyzing the features common to effective elementary guidance programs and the problems frequently encountered in attempting to develop or implement them. Included is a map which provides a graphic description of the numbers and distribution of elementary counselors in our country.

Associated with the elementary focus is concern for parent education. Rasamma Nyberg reviews for us the state of the art of parenting, examines the relationship of the school counselor to training for effective parenting, and stresses the need for school guidance departments to help parents with their counseling skills--listening, advising, and understanding.

Minority groups are gaining increasing and well-deserved attention from the guidance profession. Calling for change that can "make a difference," Bob Clayton reviews current approaches to counseling minorities, highlights some ongoing programs that appear to achieve effective outcomes, and suggests major resources for those who wish to improve their minority counseling programs.

High on the list of priorities in present-day guidance programs is de-emphasis of sex differences and provision of equal opportunities for all students, regardless of gender. Peggy Hawley art[illegible]lates the need for a redefinition of sex roles, and analyzes so[illegible] the economic, political, legal, and social forces for change in this area.

Turning now to alternative ways of offering guidance services, JoAnn Harris Bowlsbey gives us a comprehensive look at how computers can be useful in delivering guidance programs. She describes three types of systems in detail and outlines ways to use them in secondary school settings.

Ever-increasing numbers of schools are utilizing the career resource center as a way of centralizing guidance services. Indeed, Tom Jacobson sees the career resource center becoming a more broadly-based human resources center, and describes the administrative and policy changes which are causing this shift to occur.

The editors next present a chapter on counselor renewal--analyzing the need for it, suggesting steps by which counselors can upgrade their skills, offering guidelines to help those who wish to develop renewal programs, reviewing existing personal and organizational barriers to renewal, and urging, always, that counselors take responsibility for their own self-renewal.

The volume comes to a close with a philosophical statement from one of the fathers of guidance, Gil Wrenn, as he offers very personal reflections on the changes wrought in counseling over the years, and communicates his own insights concerning the implications of these changes for counseling in future decades. The chapter ends with a list of counseling achievements to date and the author's hopes for the future of the field.

These, then, are the areas of guidance which we believed deserved attention. Each chapter concludes with recommendations for actions that can be taken by each of our four professional guidance groups to achieve the identified imperatives--remember, our focus is on what we can do to bring our profession to further maturity. In its finished form the book is far more than was originally conceived, if not quite what our dreams would have had it be. Thirteen chapters. The figure pleases us. Our deliberate use of an unlucky number may be interpreted as a rejection of myths and past practices, for one of our most pressing imperatives is to stop reacting to the past and to think about and plan for the future.

As society and individuals change, so must guidance change if it is to be responsive to current concerns. Therefore, imperatives for guidance are never-ending. So there is no real ending to this book. In fact, we hope that it is the start of a journey for you and that both your goals and your actions will be clearer and more decisive for the reading. Contemplate. Enjoy. Take action! Those are imperatives!

GRW and LB

10

1 career guidance at the crossroads

Norman C. Gysbers

Norman C. Gysbers is Professor of Education, Department of Counseling and Personnel Services at the University of Missouri – Columbia. He is the immediate Past-President of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. He also served as President of the National Vocational Guidance Association, 1972 - 73. He was Editor of the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly* from 1962 - 70. Currently he is Editor of the *Journal of Career Education.*

Since 1967 he has served as director for numerous national and state projects on career development and guidance. He also is and has been a member of numerous national advisory boards. In 1975 he was chosen as an Outstanding Educator of America and is listed in *Who's Who in America.* He is the author of 28 journal articles and 10 chapters in recently published books.

CAREER GUIDANCE AT THE CROSSROADS

Norman C. Gysbers

This chapter begins with a history of career guidance since 1900. It traces the development of the field from its early focus on job selection and placement to its modern emphasis on personal adjustment. It notes the change from an ancillary, crisis-oriented service to a comprehensive, developmental program based on personal and societal needs. Finally, it considers directions for the future. An important future concept is "life career development," which views work as only one part of an individual's total self. The author concludes with a list of imperatives, both theoretical and practical, for implementing the broad, modern concept of career guidance.

Since the turn of the century, career guidance has been at many crossroads. At each crossroads the then prevailing climate in society, the various educational movements of the time, and the individuals in leadership roles came together to shape the nature and structure of career guidance, directing it down a particular road. Today, career guidance is once again at the crossroads and the question is, Which direction now? Part of the answer to this question will come from the economic-political climate of the country and the influence it has on legislation and education. Part of the answer will come from the interaction of a number of emerging movements in education including career education, competency-based education, basic education, and humanistic education.

To understand the crossroads which we are facing today and the possible directions it presents to us, it is first necessary to review briefly the previous crossroads and resulting directions taken since the turn of the century, or, How Did We Arrive at This Crossroads? Next a summary of those historical influences will be provided. The summary will be followed by a brief discussion of the current views about career guidance. This section of the paper is titled, What's It Like at the Crossroads? The third section of the paper will deal with future directions for career guidance or Which Direction Now? And finally, the last section of the paper will outline specific action steps that will assist us to meet the human development needs of those we serve. It is titled Some Imperatives.

How Did We Arrive at This Crossroads?

Guidance was born during the height of the Progressive Movement as "but one manifestation of the broader movement of progressive reform which occurred in this country in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries" (Stephens, 1970, p. 5). At a time of rapid industrial growth, social reform and idealism. At a time in which the Progressive Movement sought to bring about changes in the work place, in living conditions, and in education. During this period leaders like Frank Parsons, Jessie Davis, Eli Weaver, and David Hill began to formulate and implement early conceptions of guidance, laying the foundation for the many variations that followed.

Among these leaders, Frank Parsons is given credit for implementing one of the first systematic conceptions of guidance. In fact, he is given credit for first using the term "vocational guidance" to describe an organized series of activities designed to assist individuals to choose an occupation (Davis, 1969, p. 113). Parsons felt that the choice of an occupation should be of greatest concern to individuals and should be approached in a meaningful step-by-step way.

> These vital problems should be solved in a careful, scientific way, with due regard to each person's aptitudes, abilities, ambitions, resources, and limitations, and the relations of these elements to the conditions of success in different industries. (Parsons, 1909, p. 3)

Vocational guidance as outlined by Parsons placed a major focus on occupational selection and placement. The transition from school to work was emphasized. Vocational guidance was a means through which individuals would better understand themselves and the work world, choose an occupation on the basis of these understandings, and then prepare for it and progress in it. It is interesting to note here that this formulation was adopted by the National Vocational Guidance Association (1937) years later as the aim of guidance--"to assist the individual to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in an occupation."

Soon after Parsons formulated his approach to vocational guidance and began to implement it in the Vocations Bureau of Boston, the concept began to catch on in the public schools of Boston and elsewhere. In fact, plans for establishing vocational guidance were already underway in a number of cities including New York, Chicago, and Grand Rapids. While vocational guidance took on several different forms in these schools, the then common elements of occupational information, occupational surveys, placement, and career classes were present in all.

By 1920 a considerable number of public schools across the country had implemented aspects of vocational guidance, including placement activities and courses on vocations. The emphasis in guidance during these early years was on occupational selection and placement, with a curriculum orientation. Vocational guidance also was linked closely to vocational education. In fact, Stephens (1970) called vocational guidance and vocational education twin reform movements in education.

As the 1920's continued to unfold, however, a shift in emphasis began to occur in the theory and practice of vocational guidance. As vocational guidance continued to be implemented in the schools, it was influenced by a number of movements prevalent during that time, including the mental hygiene and measurement movements, developmental studies of children, progressive education, and the introduction of the cumulative record.

> Vocational guidance was taking on the new vocabulary present in the culture at large and in the educational sub-culture; the language of mental health, progressive education, child development and measurement theory. (Johnson, 1972, p. 160)

As a result of these influences, vocational guidance in the schools began to emphasize a more personal, diagnostic, clinical orientation to individuals. Personal counseling and psychological assessment were stressed so that vocational guidance became problem-centered and more clinically oriented. The earlier concept of a curriculum in vocational guidance was soon overshadowed by these later developments. This shift in emphasis laid the foundation for a process- or technique-oriented concept of guidance as opposed to a curriculum-based view. For management purposes these guidance processes and techniques apparently were grouped in terms of personnel functions and responsibilities. This probably became the basis for defining guidance in terms of services, such as assessment, information, counseling, placement, and follow-up.

In the 1930's, the change in emphasis in the theory and practice of vocational guidance which had begun in the 1920's continued to occur. Counseling, particularly personal counseling, was beginning to be seen as something separate from vocational and educational guidance.

> Up to 1930 . . . not much progress had been made in differentiating this function (personal counseling) from the pre-existing programs of vocational and educational guidance. After that date, more and more of a separation appeared as guidance workers in the high schools became aware of increasingly large numbers of students who were troubled by personal problems involving hostility to authority, sex relationships, unfortunate home situations, and financial stringencies. (Rudy, 1965, p. 25)

It is also clear that by the 1930's counseling, testing, information, placement, and follow-up were the terms used to describe the major components of guidance. These activities were translated into lists of duties to be performed by counselors such as counseling students, changing courses, dealing with failures and problem students, providing transcripts and personnel records, and cooperating with other agencies (Campbell, 1932).

In some quarters during the 1930's efforts were made to interpret guidance as an inseparable part of education with the result that classroom teachers were seen as delivering both instruction and guidance. The home room approach was advocated as a valuable guidance technique. These efforts, however, were overshadowed by the continued emphasis in the field on personal counseling with a major outcome of adjustment, be it school, occupational, social or emotional.

As we entered the 1940's, some 30 years after Parsons used the term vocational guidance to describe a set of organized activities, the basic dimensions of guidance as we know it today were quite well formulated. The organizer of guidance activities called services was established. Also the description of guidance as having phases such as vocational, personal-social and educational was used frequently by this time, too (Smith, 1951).

Concurrently, the interest in psychotherapy which had begun earlier among guidance personnel continued to increase. This interest was aided greatly by the publication of Counseling and Psychotherapy by Carl Rogers in 1942.

> The years following its publication in 1942 saw a growth in interest in psychotherapeutic procedures which soon became even greater than interest in psychometrics. This movement, and the numerous research and theoretical contributions which have accompanied it, has had its impact on vocational guidance. (Super, 1955, p. 4)

The impact of this movement on the theory and practice of traditional vocational guidance was profound. Out of it came a new field--that of counseling psychology. This, in turn, had a substantial impact on the development of school guidance in the 1950's, 60's and 70's.

> An important outcome of the merger of the vocational orientation, psychometric, and personality development movements has been a changed concept of the function and training of the person who does the counseling. He was first either a teacher who helped people explore the world of work or a psychologist who gave and interpreted tests. The he, who might or might not have been a psychologist, was a user of community resources, of occupational information, and of psychological tests. He has now emerged as a psychologist who uses varying combinations of exploratory experiences, psychometric techniques, and psychotherapeutic interviewing to assist people to grow and to develop. This is the counseling psychologist. (Committee on Definition, Division of Counseling Psychology, American Psychological Association, 1956, p. 284)

In 1946 the George-Barden Act was passed which provided funds for the first time to support state supervisors of guidance, local guidance personnel, and counselor-trainees (as they were called then). This support caused guidance and counseling to grow rapidly, and, in turn, raised the question of the nature of counselor training. To help answer this question the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the U.S. Office of Education established a series of committees in 1948 to investigate the topic. The final outcome of the work of these committees was the publication between 1949 and 1952 of eight major documents identifying needed competencies of counselors. The titles of these publications were:

1. Duties, Standards, and Qualifications for Counselors, 1949.
2. The Basic Course, 1949.
3. Counselor Competencies in Occupational Information, 1949.
4. Counselor Competencies in Counseling Techniques, 1949.
5. Counselor Competencies in the Analysis of the Individual, 1949.

6. Administrative Relationships of the Guidance Program, 1949.

7. In-Service Preparation for Guidance Duties: Parts One and Two, 1950.

8. Supervised Practice in Counselor Preparation, 1952.

In the 1950's, the shift from guidance as vocational only to guidance as one segment of pupil personnel services continued. The services concept of guidance, which had its origins in the 1920's and 30's, became the dominant way of organizing and administering guidance activities. Even at the Federal level this was evident. For example, the Guidance and Personnel Branch of the Division of Vocational Education was discontinued in 1952 and a Pupil Personnel Services Section was established in the Division of State and Local School Systems in 1953.

In 1958, the National Defense Education Act of 1958--P.L. 85-864--was passed. Title V of that Act provided funds to support guidance (particularly testing) in the schools and to train counselors. The training these counselors received concentrated on individual counseling techniques and assessment procedures. Placement and educational and occupational information methods received relatively less attention. This was in keeping with the shift that had occurred earlier in guidance away from a vocational orientation to a more clinical-therapeutic-personal problem orientation.

The 1960's witnessed the continued dominance of the pupil personnel services concept as the organizer under which guidance functioned in the schools. Also, as a result of the dominance of the clinical emphasis with its focus on personal adjustment, counseling emerged as a central service of guidance. The other services were seen as supportive and supplementary. "No longer is it viewed merely as a technique and limited to vocational and educational matters; counseling is regarded as the central service in the guidance program" (Ferguson, 1963, p. 40).

The 1960's also witnessed increasing concern about the role and function of counselors. Because of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, the numbers of counselors in schools increased greatly. Hence, literally hundreds of articles were written about the role and functions of school counselors. Counseling was seen by many as the most important function for counselors to perform. In fact, some writers were calling for "the abandonment of the term guidance as it is associated with services provided by a counselor" (Roeber, 1963, p. 22).

Although the clinical-services model of guidance with its emphasis on counselors and counseling continued to dominate professional theory and practice during the 1960's, a new model was slowly beginning to emerge. It was called guidance for development. It received support from a number of diverse influences. First, the 1960's witnessed a resurgence of interest in vocational guidance (now called career guidance) undergirded by research and theory building in career development. Second, there was an emerging concern about the efficacy of the clinical-services model in the schools (Aubrey, 1969). Third, emphasis was beginning to be given to the notion of comprehensive guidance programs and program evaluation (Wellman and Twiford, 1961). Finally, a call was issued in the 1960's for developmental guidance (Mathewson, 1962).

In the early 1970's the accountability movement in education intensified. It was accompanied by continued interest in career development and its educational manifestations, career guidance and career education. Other educational movements such as psychological education, moral education, and process education also emerged. The convergence of these movements served as a stimulus to continue the task of defining guidance developmentally in measurable individual outcome terms.

The preliminary work for defining guidance in this way had begun in the 1960's so that by the 1970's the basic vocabulary and the technical know-how to develop and implement comprehensive, developmental guidance programs was available. McDaniel (1970) had proposed such a model which he called Youth Guidance Systems. It was organized around goals, objectives, programs, implementation plans, and designs for evaluation. Closely related to this model was the Comprehensive Career Guidance System (CCGS) developed by personnel at the American Institutes for Research (Jones, et al., 1971; Jones et al., 1972). Earlier, Wellman (1968) had developed a systems model for evaluating guidance which served as a basis for a number of evaluation models in the late 60's and early 70's. Also, Ryan (1969), Thoresen (1969), and Hosford and Ryan (1970) proposed the application of systems theory and techniques to the development of comprehensive guidance programs.

What's It Like at the Crossroads?

The first part of this paper has traced the history of our field from c. 1900 until the present. It has provided us with a description of the influences which have shaped the nature and structure of career guidance over the past seventy years. It also has provided us with a basis for understanding society's and practitioners' expectations of what career guidance is today and what career guidance should be in the future. What we have found is the following:

1. The term vocational guidance was used shortly after the turn of the century to describe an organized series of activities designed to assist individuals to choose an occupation, gain appropriate training, enter that occupation, and progress in it. The emphasis was on selection and placement.

2. As vocational guidance became incorporated in the schools during the early years, the school curriculum often was used as the prime delivery vehicle. Very few full-time guidance personnel were available (most were in central offices); so teachers were urged to incorporate vocational guidance activities into their classrooms.

3. By the 1920's a distinct shift began to occur in the theory and practice of vocational guidance. It became problem-centered, focusing on personal adjustment. The emergence and proliferation of other kinds of guidance such as personal, social, educational, health, and moral guidance made the situation more diffuse so that while vocational guidance continued to be present for the next 40 years, it was no longer dominant.

4. During the 1920's the beginnings of what we now call the services model of guidance appeared. Words like information, assessment, counseling, placement, and follow-up began to be used to describe groupings of guidance activities.

5. During the 1930's, 40's and 50's, counseling emerged as the dominant guidance approach or service. The field became technique-oriented, concentrating on one guidance service rather than on the multiple services advocated earlier under the term guidance.

6. During this same period the now traditional way of describing guidance or counseling as having three aspects--vocational, educational and personal-social--became firmly established. Vocational guidance or counseling, instead of being the all of guidance or counseling, was now but one part of a large whole.

7. Beginning in the 1960's, but particularly in the early 1970's, the concept of guidance for development emerged. The call came to reorient guidance from an ancillary, crisis-oriented service only, to a comprehensive, developmental program based on personal and societal needs, organized around person-centered goals and activities designed to meet these needs. The call came from a number of diverse sources including the renewed interest in career development theory and research, concern about the efficacy of the prevailing model of guidance in the schools, concern about accountability and evaluation, and renewed interest in developmental guidance.

8. Finally, it was clear that guidance as it is practiced in the schools was and is a creature of legislation. It began with the

Smith-Hughes Act in 1917 and continues to the present with such recent legislation as P.L. 94-482, The Education Amendments of 1976; P.L. 95-207, The Career Education Incentives Act of 1977; and P.L. 95-93, The Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977.

What's it like at the crossroads today as a result of this history? The result is that various, sometimes conflicting views abound as to what career guidance is and what career guidance should be. What are these conflicting views? Super (1974) identified four.

1. Is guidance to be for manpower utilization or for individual development?
2. Is guidance to be for occupational choice or for career development?
3. Is guidance to consist of information dissemination or of counseling?
4. Is guidance to be a service of laymen or of professional counselors? (p. 76)

To some practitioners within our field and to many individuals outside, career guidance is embodied in those elements described in the first part of each of these four questions. Career guidance is manpower-oriented; it deals with occupational choice; it relies heavily on occupational information; and, while there is a need for some professionals, much of the work can and should be done by lay persons or other professionals such as teachers. This perspective assumes there are other types of guidance such as educational and personal-social so that career guidance becomes one of three emphases in an overall guidance program.

This view of career guidance receives substantial support from Federal legislation because Federal legislation has been and continues to be rooted in the belief that career guidance primarily promotes employability and vocational adjustment. This is clearly evident in two recent pieces of legislation: the Education Amendments of 1976--P.L. 94-482, and the Career Education Incentive Act--P.L. 95-207. For example, in Title II, Section 134 of P.L. 94-482 titled Vocational Guidance and Counseling, there is frequent mention of vocational exploration, job placement, and vocational resource centers. In Parts C and D of Title III of that same Act career information and increased contact with business and industry are emphasized. In the Career Education Incentive Act the stress is on occupational choice, placement, follow-up, and occupational information.

Conceptually, the idea of describing human development in terms of career (occupational), educational, and personal-social needs and concerns is useful. Unfortunately, what began as a way of understanding human development also has become a way to organize and implement guidance programs. For example, the manpower-occupational information-orientation of career guidance, coupled with the notion that guidance has three parts, has promoted the use of special job titles including vocational counselors and job placement specialists. Often practitioners are employed with these titles because of funding sources. As a result, lines of communication and working relationships with other guidance personnel have become very complex. And, what is worse, this type of funding and titling of practitioners has caused some individuals to believe that it is possible to separate people in this manner and deal only with specific aspects of their lives.

At the same time that a number of practitioners within our field and many individuals outside are emphasizing those elements described in the first part of each of the four questions posited by Super, an increasing number of practitioners are emphasizing those elements described in the second part of the four questions. In fact, this latter group sees the second part as encompassing the first so that individual development becomes a way to develop and use this nation's manpower most appropriately; that occupational choice is but one part of total career development; that counseling incorporates information but is much more; and that both professional counselors and laymen are needed to carry out a comprehensive developmental program of career guidance.

This kind of thinking has led to the beginning development and implementation of career guidance programs and services in some settings today that go beyond traditional vocational assessment and the giving of occupational information only, to a focus on personal development in the broadest sense. Hence, activities in these programs focus on the development of self-identity, human relationship skills, and planning and decision making competencies, along with such traditional activities as vocational assessment, information giving, placement, and follow-up.

The impact of these conflicting understandings on practitioners--counselors, counselor educators, supervisors and directors--is substantial. It has created internal problems of concept definition and program focus. A case in point are the placement, follow-up, and follow-through functions of guidance. A number of guidance practitioners do not give priority to these functions in their programming. They are content to leave them to others. At the same time placement, follow-up, and follow-through have been identified as priority functions in Federal legislation and in state plans for vocational education with specialized personnel appointed to carry out these tasks.

Another area of misunderstanding which has occurred due to these conflicting views revolves around the very nature and structure of career guidance itself. To some within our field, but particularly to many outside our field, career guidance is getting the right person in the right training program and/or job and dealing with any personal crises which may occur as this process unfolds. The notion that career guidance is a program that has a curriculum like other educational programs is not yet well understood inside or outside the field. And, if it is understood by some, then what career guidance curriculum there is, is best carried out by teachers, not counselors.

These two specific areas of misunderstanding--placement, follow-up and follow-through, and the career guidance curriculum--lead directly to another concern. And that is the concern generated by the notion that many career guidance responsibilities and functions can and should be incorporated into the regular duties of existing teaching personnel and/or that by adding paraprofessional and computers, the work will be done. There is no question in my mind about the need for a team approach to career guidance and the need for adequate resources including computers. I am concerned, however, that professionally certified counselors may be relegated to a supportive, management role and not be seen as providing direct programming to individuals. Professionally certified counselors do have direct programming and service responsibilities to individuals as well as responsibilities for consultative relationships with other members of the educational team.

Finally, the different ways we have of conceptualizing and implementing career guidance today have caused confusion about the training and supervision of guidance personnel. The emerging conception of career guidance as a developmental, comprehensive program mandates staff competencies which heretofore have not been required. Skills in program planning and implementation; skills in conducting of structured developmental groups focusing on individual goal setting, decision-making, self-identity and planning; skills in organizing and running of placement, follow-up, and follow-through activities; and skills in consulting with teachers, parents, and the community are but a few of the skills which guidance personnel need to develop and/or upgrade. This means that close and continuous contact is needed between those who do preservice training and those who conduct inservice activities.

What's it like at the crossroads today? Conceptually, career guidance is a mixture of these sometimes conflicting views, and its practices embody both sides of the four questions raised by Super.

Confusing? Yes! Difficult to practice? Yes! And yet the expectations of society for career guidance which embodies all of these views continue to escalate.

Which Direction Now?

The question that faces us now in light of these conflicting views and increased expectations is, Which direction should we take at this crossroads in our history? Career guidance could continue to be conceptualized as it has been in the past--as one part of a larger entity (the word "career" is used in place of the word "vocational" to represent the three aspects of guidance--educational, personal-social, and vocational). Organizationally, career guidance could remain in the services model configuration.

If career guidance continues to move in these traditional directions in the future, what impact will it have on career guidance theory and practice? In all probability, improvements would continue to be made in career guidance methods and techniques particularly through the application of new technology. Career counseling would continue to have a prominent role. The other traditional services of guidance probably would become more prominent than they have been in the recent past because of the increasing demand for career information, assessment, placement, follow-up, and follow-through activities.

But the question is whether these advances in traditional theory and practice would be sufficient to meet the challenges of the future.

My answer is no, they would not be. That is not to say that traditional career guidance approaches are not of assistance to individuals, nor is it to say that traditional career guidance approaches cannot be improved through the application of new technology. In fact, my reason for saying no to the question has little to do with whether traditional approaches are of assistance or whether they can be improved. My reason for saying no is that to meet the challenges we face today and will face tomorrow, we need a new understanding of career guidance, an understanding which encompasses past approaches, but at the same time goes beyond them to provide a unified point of departure for comprehensive, developmental career guidance programs and services.

Central to this new understanding of career guidance is the expanded meaning of the word "career" that is now emerging. Historically, the word career was not used. The word "vocation" was; it was defined in terms of life purpose, or of pursuing an occupation for which one was especially suited. Later the word career was substituted for the word vocation in the literature but it was still defined as occupation. Then in the late 1960's and early 1970's a new way of defining the word career emerged. It was defined in life role terms.

> The concept of career encompasses a variety of possible patterns of personal choice related to each individual's total life style . . .
> 1. occupations
> 2. education
> 3. personal and social behavior
> 4. learning-how-to-learn
> 5. social responsibility (i.e., citizenship)
> 6. leisure time activities.
>
> (Jones, et al., 1972, p. 6)

Later in the 1970's an equally broad definition was proposed by Super (1976). He defined career as:

> the sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his preoccupational, occupational, and post-occupational life; includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner, together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic roles. Careers exist only as people pursue them; they are person-centered. (p. 20)

Building on the work of Cole (1972, 1973), Super (1975), Goldhammer and Taylor (1972) and Goldhammer (1975), Bailey (1976) identified four general life roles which he felt gave operational meaning to Cole's (1973) concept of the educated person. These four roles included work, family, learning, and self-development and social-citizenship. Gysbers and Moore (1974) expanded the broadened definition of career even more by adding life settings and life events, suggesting that human development can be described in terms of life roles, settings, and events and their interaction. In a similar manner, Super (1976) added to the life role concept by describing the concepts of life theaters and life space.

The key to this new understanding of career guidance is a conception of career development which emphasizes not only the ways in which individuals relate to work but is expanded to include how individuals relate to the other roles, settings, and events of their lives. It is time to break the work-focus-only barrier of traditional career guidance, career development, and instead focus on all aspects of individuals' lives--on their life career development. Work is an important part of the lives of people but to be fully understood it must be seen in relationship to other aspects of life.

To bring these ideas together, the term life career development is used. The word life indicates that the focus in this concept is on the individual, the self. The word career identifies and relates the many roles in which individuals are involved--student, worker, citizen, parent; the settings in which they find themselves--school, the work place, community, home; and the events which may occur in their lifetimes--entry job, marriage, retirement. The word development is used to show that people change; they are always in the process of becoming. When used in sequence, the words life career development bring these separate meanings together, but at the same time they mean more. Taken collectively, they describe complete individuals--unique individuals with their own life styles. "Life career development is defined as self-development over the life span through the integration of the roles, settings and events of a person's life" (Gysbers & Moore, 1975, p. 648).

Describing human development in life career terms provides us with a way to improve and expand career guidance programs and practices. It can assist us to overcome the traditional and still popular view that the major focus of career guidance is one aspect of an individual's life--occupation. To meet the challenges of today and tomorrow this narrow view must be broadened, and it can be, by understanding that occupation is but one part of life career development. Occupation is important, of course, and must be emphasized in our career guidance practices, but it cannot be viewed as something separate from the other roles, settings, and events of an individual's total life.

In addition, the broadened understanding of career guidance which has emerged during the past ten years clearly indicates that career guidance is a program which deals with the developmental concerns of individuals as well as with their immediate and/or crisis-oriented needs. It is not a program which only responds to crises or assesses abilities and interests for predictive purposes. Instead, it is a program which emphasizes the development of what could be in individuals as well as the assessment and/or treatment of what is. Tennyson (1970) said it well when he stated that:

> by concentrating upon assessment of abilities presumed to be related to choice outcomes, counselors have neglected to concern themselves with the development of abilities and aptitudes. While it is generally recognized that what a person is able to do depends to a considerable extent upon what he has learned or practiced, guidance personnel have been inclined to capitalize upon aptitudes already developed rather than cultivating new talents. (p. 262)

Finally, the broadened understanding of career guidance has opened the door for conceptualizing career guidance in an educational setting as an equal partner with the instructional program, as a program that is an integral part of the educational process with a content base of its own. To do this it is necessary to identify those domains of human growth and development for which the career guidance program assumes responsibility. Career development theory is suggestive of such domains, as is the work of those writers who have delineated developmental tasks. So too is the work of individuals who emphasize psychological, moral, and values education.

An analysis of the work of theorists, researchers, and practitioners in career development, psychological, moral, and values education reveals a number of themes common to all. One such theme is an emphasis on self-concept development. Another common theme is a focus on the development of decision-making skills in individuals. Still another theme is the need for individuals to gain an understanding of current and potential life roles, settings, and events.

Richardson and Baron (1975) grouped these common themes under the term personal learnings, learnings which stress developing a self-identity and of answering questions dealing with self in terms of who, where, and when. They pointed out that facilitation of these learnings forms the basis for a developmental counseling program (I would use the term guidance program).

> This continuous conceptualizing of self and of identity of self among others and the world, and the searching for answers to the questions of "Who, What and Where am I?" then became a major area of learning for all normal individuals, and the central purpose of developmental counseling in education. (pp. 3-4)

Some Imperatives

What are some imperatives that must be followed so that we can meet the human development needs of those we serve today and tomorrow? What steps must we take immediately to implement more fully the broadened understanding of career guidance that has emerged during the past ten years? We must do the following:

1. *Bring* together previously fragmented and isolated guidance methods, techniques, and resources under the broadened career concept so that career guidance becomes the organizer for a total, comprehensive, developmental program, early childhood through adult years.

2. *Establish* career guidance as a program that is a full partner with other programs in schools, institutions, and agencies.

3. *Plan* and *implement* career guidance prog[illegible] that respond to developmental as well as immediate and/or cri[illegible] needs of individuals.

4. *Understand* that career guidance has a content or curriculum base, a base that is measurable and therefore accountable.

5. *Understand* that while a team approach is mandatory in the planning and implementation of career guidance programs, the role of the professionally certified counselor is central, that the professionally certified counselor provides direct services to individuals as well as works in consultative relationships with other members of the career guidance team.

6. *Understand* that a comprehensive, developmental career guidance program includes components of placement, follow-up, and follow-through.

The broadened understanding we now have of career guidance has the potential to resolve the conflicting views that were identified by Super (1974) as to what career guidance is and what career guidance should be. It is not manpower utilization or individual development; it is not occupational choice or career development; it is not information or counseling; it is not practiced by laymen or professionals; it is both/and, rather than either/or. The task for all of us--counselors, supervisors, counselor educators, directors, lay people--is to empower those we serve to become all that they can become; to provide them with the knowledge and skills to know themselves, to develop effective interpersonal relations, to develop life career planning and decision-making skills, and to understand better their current and potential life roles. This means that all of us must resolve to work together more closely in the preservice and inservice education and training of guidance personnel and in the planning and implementation of comprehensive career guidance programs.

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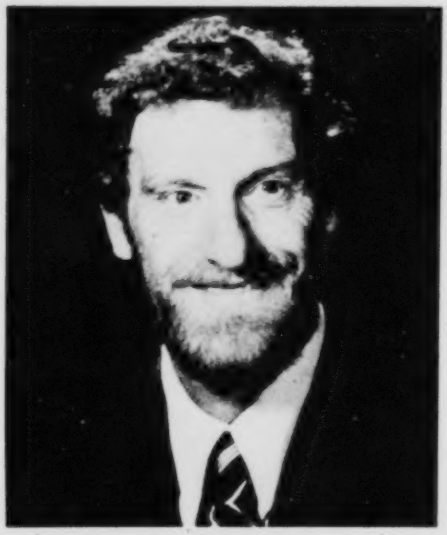
2 developing exemplary guidance programs

Robert E. Campbell



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DEVELOPING EXEMPLARY GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Robert E. Campbell

The chapter outlines the rationale and criteria for strengthening guidance through the installation of exemplary programs. It lists examples of programs, suggests major resources for learning about new programs and reviews adoption considerations. The chapter concludes with recommendations for counselor educators and state and local directors of guidance.

The Need for Better Programs: An Imperative

Some weeks ago I was entertaining a visitor from another state. Part of my task was to review our research programs. When we got to the topic of guidance, I invited him to express his views. His response was terse. "I have a son in high school and I'm concerned about his career plans. I visited the school to see what they could offer. It was a farce! They don't know the first thing about helping kids with career planning."

I tried to stand up for the profession, but I am afraid my defense was weak. Reflecting on this, I concluded that although my visitor's remarks were harsh, I have heard too many similar comments--some were more gentle, but they conveyed the same message.

Published critiques of guidance are not much better. Pine (1975), in his soul-searching evaluation of guidance, concluded that guidance is beginning to pay the penalty for failing to demonstrate effectiveness. Budgets for guidance are being cut at the local and state levels, and educational agencies have had to eliminate guidance positions--which compounds the problem even further. How can they begin to rebuild for accountability with reduced staffs?

Reactions within the profession as to the status of guidance appear to fall into three camps. First is the all is rosy group who seem content with the status quo, want to continue to do their own thing, and are impervious to total program effectiveness. The second could be labeled the lip service group. They recognize the need for program improvement but are discouraged by the many bureaucratic obstacles and the effort required to bring about change. The third represents discontents who see the need for betterment and are trying to get on with it. They are the prime movers, the individual leaders who have visions of better programs and are concerned with reducing the discrepancy between what is and what ought to be. They exist in various settings, i.e., schools, professional associations, and communities, and at all levels of administration.

What Can Be Done to Improve Guidance Programs

Among the number of things that can be done to improve the quality of guidance is progressively to install exemplary programs which lead to a more positive image of guidance. An exemplary program should meet quality standards or criteria. The next section outlines these criteria.

Criteria for Exemplary Programs

Career guidance programs should be designed to meet quality standards to insure effectiveness. Various criteria that have been suggested by the professional literature are outlined below. At first glance, the list of criteria may seem a trifle idealistic to the everyday practitioner in view of the present state of the art, but since the theme of this book stresses targeted imperatives it is essential that quality be emphasized in future program planning.

1. Student needs assessment is the determination of "true" student needs which become the cornerstone of program planning. Although the data base for student needs assessment is usually provided by student surveys, it can also include other sources of input such as the opinions of school staff, parents, alumni, community members, and theory and research.

2. Program objectives define the specific outcomes of a guidance activity. Clearly defined objectives communicate program expectations and allow the program to be amenable to evaluation. In their recent national review of adult guidance programs, Harrison and Entine (1976) noted that a preponderance of adult guidance programs suffered from the absence of specific objectives, which prevented systematic evaluation. Program objectives can be expressed in various forms.

A current vogue is to describe objectives through expected student behaviors such as competencies or skills. An example of the use of skills as objectives is contained in the College Entrance Examination Board's Career Skills Assessment Program (Keilholtz, 1977). Designed to be used with both secondary and adult populations, the program teaches compentencies in six areas:

1. Self-evaluation and development skills
2. Career awareness skills
3. Career decision-making skills
4. Employment-seeking skills
5. Work effectiveness skills
6. Personal economics skills

3. The recognition of theory and research lends credence and valid conceptualization to program planning. Numerous examples demonstrate the contributions of theory and research to current program planning. Perhaps the most notable are Super's career development theory (see Osipow, 1973), Holland's career typology theory (Holland, 1973), and career pattern research (Vetter & Stockburger, 1977).

4. Accountability is an increasingly popular requirement for programs. Merely demonstrating a need for a program is not enough; most school boards want evidence of effectiveness. Program administrators are being confronted with sticky questions such as "Is it helping kids?" "Can we do without it?" "Is it worth the expenditure of tax dollars?"

5. The use of local resources to optimize program economy and

effectiveness is an important ingredient for sound planning. Almost any guidance function can profit from the creative utilization of local resources. The most common examples are for career exploration, client referrals, and job placement.

6. *Cost effectiveness* is another essential criterion for guidance program development. Whatever can be done to cut costs and lessen the taxpayer burden is a plus. One way of reducing costs is to use existing exemplary programs which save large investments in basic program development. In other words, why spend great sums of money reinventing the wheel? A case in point is career exploration packages. At least 50 such packages exist, and yet educational agencies continue to invest money in developing new ones.

7. Whenever possible, *flexibility* should be incorporated into the design of a program, i.e., the program should not be so rigid that it cannot be adopted easily by others. Program developers usually want to have breathing room to insert their own twist. Of course, basic structure is needed, but overstructure can be devastating. For example, employability skills programs should be designed to teach basic skills, but with the capacity to allow for functional expansion or reduction as warranted by the circumstances of the individual school.

8. Provision for *staff training* is a necessary requirement for most programs. An instructor's manual should be included which not only guides the instructor but also encourages the instructor to do

some self-testing prior to using the program.

9. Unfortunately, program evaluation is perceived as an unpleasant chore by most educators, but it has many advantages for those concerned with offering quality education. Too often we are deceived into thinking that if the program has good face validity, it is a sound program. Face validity has its limits and may prevent one from seeing deficiencies. Most evaluations are geared toward determining how effective the program is for students. For example, did 10 weeks of career exploration really lead to better career decision-making, or would the students have been just as well off without the experience?

10. Most programs are vulnerable to obsolescence; therefore, a provision must be included for revision and, in some instances, termination of the program. Built-in periodic evaluations are beneficial for making revision decisions. Evaluations provide information about program procedures as well as the degree of impact on students.

Examples of Exemplary Guidance Programs

The following are examples of exemplary guidance programs available for immediate installation. No program meets all of the criteria described above, but most include many of the criteria. The programs were identified through a national search of approximately 600 programs (Campbell, Rodebaugh, & Shaltry, in press).

The programs are grouped into seven categories : (1) curriculum,

(2) self-understanding and occupational knowledge, (3) career exploration, (4) career decision-making, (5) placement, (6) employability skills, and (7) equity.

Curriculum

Curriculum-based guidance programs represent classroom-based learning experiences. They are usually packaged as a set of integrated materials which can be taught either by individual school staff or by teams of teachers, librarians, counselors, specialists, and paraprofessionals. Examples are as follows:

* The Career Decision-Making Program. McKnight Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1977.

Through this program, students:

1. Identify career activities, values, and life goals, and recognize that career planning is one means of moving toward life goals;

2. Use self-exploration and occupational exploration in shaping careers;

3. Develop decision-making abilities;

4. Relate personal characteristics to occupations in order to identify and/or evaluate career alternatives;

5. Identify major influences affecting career decisions;

6. Identify ways in which society and self interact throughout their career;

7. Develop their ability to manage the variables involved in shaping their careers.

* Career Planning Program, Grades 8-11. Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts, 1974.

This program was developed by the Research and Development

Division of the American College Testing Program for students in grades 8-11. The materials include a student guidebook covering self-assessment steps in career planning; an ability measurement covering students' aptitudes in mechanical reasoning, numerical, reading, language, and clerical skills; an answer folder for the test; a student report showing ability, interest and experience measures; and a user's guide describing the program, testing, and scoring. The program is for individual or class use and could be used more than once.

- Homes and Lifestyles: The Choice is Yours. Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, New York, 1976.

This program, which consists of five full-color filmstrips, five 12" long-playing records, or five cassettes and a teacher's guide, is designed to help high school students make rational decisions about their life-styles. Part I depicts various living situations. Part II examines family relationships. Part III reviews effective decision-making. Part IV shows alternative housing. Part V examines day-to-day home management tasks.

- Career Directions: Staying With It and Getting Ahead. Mafex Associates, Inc., Johnstown, Pennsylvania, 1974.

This is a kit of 30 student reading and activity workbooks, two cassettes, two filmstrips, and a teacher's manual. The materials help students define career goals and expectations and develop guidelines and perspectives for achieving goals. The kit is for junior and senior high school students, but the instructor should review the student's reading level before recommending the materials for individual study. The kit contains a series of filmed interviews with people employed in various jobs and suggestions for using the materials in existing curricula and student follow-up activities.

- The Life Career Development System. Walz, G. R., and Benjamin, L. Human Development Services, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1975.

The Life Career Development System is an action-oriented, comprehensive 60-hour program with six components: 30 copies of each of nine modules dealing with self, values, goal-setting, overcoming barriers, futurism, and other aspects of life career development, sequentially organized, reusable, and including games, pictures, and text; a Facilitator's Resource Bank; pre/post learning measures; participants' journals; user communication network; and a facilitator training workshop. The LCDS is in use in secondary schools, colleges, and agencies and can be easily customized to various settings and time allocations. Appropriate for groups of up to 30 from grades 9 to adult, the LCDS is designed to help participants master the essentials of life planning and decision-making.

Self-understanding and occupational knowledge

Self-understanding and occupational knowledge programs are designed to encourage students to develop positive self-concepts and understand the relationship between their self-concept and possible careers.

- * Career Motivation Program. Career Growth Associates, Inc. Richmond, Virginia, 1977.

The Career Motivation Program is a series of group process workshops designed to help individuals know themselves and their career world through specific activities which identify their successes, strengths, values, interests, abilities, and personality patterns. The participant-leader manual uses a format of instruction, action, feedback, and graphics and illustrations to clarify each activity. A typical group consists of eight to ten teenagers or adults. The materials are self-instructional. Workshops are available from the developers.

- * Improving Personal Relationships. Parts I and II. APGA, Washington, D.C., 1977.

Improving Personal Relationships, Part I and Part II, and the Leader's Guide are intended for use by junior high and high school counselors, teachers, and allied helping professionals who assist young women (and men) in improving their personal relationships.

The format of each film consists of an introductory roleplay sequence and a series of vignettes. The roleplay sequence depicts an interpersonal situation handled first nonassertively, second aggressively, and third assertively. The stimulus vignettes confront the viewer with a series of demanding and difficult situations which are similar to those frequently experienced by high school women in their relationships with others. It is suggested that the stimulus vignettes be viewed and worked with one at a time. While these films are intended for use in an assertion training framework, the inclusion of general discussion issues about each vignette in the Leader's Guide expands their usage to discussion groups as well as assertion groups.

* PA Guidance Service Center. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, 1977.

This center has the most up-to-date multimedia matts produced by over 90 publishers in the field of affective education. Filmstrips, films, kits, games, microfiche matts, career briefs, and test specimens for pre-school, K-12, postsecondary, special education and professional areas are included. Available from the Center are inservice workshops, bibliographies at all levels, demonstrations of matts and their use, plus suggestions for beginning or improving existing programs.

* Exploring Career Interests. Science Research Associates, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

This program for early secondary grades through adult consists of 58 games and a teacher's guide, and deals with career development and exploration in an entertaining and highly motivating manner. Basic occupational information such as descriptions of duties, education and training, special talents or abilities, and places of employment are explored in 10 interest areas. Multi-media games incorporating a cassette tape, colorful playing boards, and various manipulatives provide a change from printed materials. All games have been field-tested with a full range of students in a variety of school settings.

* Careers. Pathescope Educational Media, New Rochelle, New York, 1977.

This series on various careers, consisting of two color filmstrips, two cassettes, and a comprehensive teacher's manual for each program, takes a "why you might be attracted to this career" approach in a two-part format. The first part covers broad aspects of a career, using many on-the-job interviews with people working at their jobs. The interviewees tell the kind of people they work with, personal satisfactions, and disadvantages of the job. The second part focuses on the details of the career, attitudes and aptitudes needed, and training required. Careers was created in cooperation with The Associated Press.

Career Exploration

Career exploration programs go a step beyond awareness "get acquainted" activities. Exploration is the process of investigating selected occupations and relating them to one's abilities, interests, and education for the purpose of making subsequent career choices.

- * The Fascinating World of Work Career Awareness Series. National Career Consultants, Inc., Richardson, Texas, 1977.

The Fascinating World of Work Career Awareness Series is an up-to-date practice designed for students in grades 7-12. The kit contains four teacher's guides with scripts, a recap of career points, suggested discussion topics, sample test questions, and suggested classroom and individual activities.

- * Exploring Careers. Abt Associates, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1973.

This classroom material package for grades 7-12 is designed to help students gain information and insights necessary to make successful career decisions by engaging in values-oriented research and analysis activities. For each activity, spirit masters for student instructions and student worksheets are included, as well as detailed directions and concise teaching objectives, subject area relevance, and occupational relevance listings. The 16 activities, each with a strong career education focus, include topics such as "tape swap" where occupational interview recordings are traded; "anything you can do" with a serious look at sex bias in jobs; and "costs of living" with a realistic look at independent living.

- * Career Resource Centers. The Center for Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1977.

This 197-page handbook is for educational planners in local schools, postsecondary institutions, and other community organizations who are interested in expanding their career guidance and educational delivery system. The handbook outlines general plans, procedures, staffing patterns, and activities, and suggests resources. This book also offers suggestions for communities with unique needs for alternative planning methods and career center implementation.

* Discovery. Scholastic Book Services, New York, N.Y., 1973

Discovery is a career exploration practice that introduces students in grades 7-10 to the role of personality and temperament in making career decisions. Through real interviews on sound filmstrips, students meet 49 young workers who discuss themselves and their jobs. Students use a logbook supplied with the kit to evaluate their own values and goals in relation to the workers shown on the film. The kit has a teacher's guide, 30 student career logs, eight color sound filmstrips with an option of either cassette tapes or records. The student career log has eight chapters keyed to each filmstrip plus a resource guide to the various career clusters.

* Individualized Career Exploration Inventory. Scholastic Testing Service, Bensenville, Illinois, 1976.

This material is programmed to be used without an instructor, if necessary. It is designed to organize information about the self in regard to interests, experiences, ability (as reflected in grades), skills, and motivation level. This self-scored instrument has a record sheet showing first and second highest occupational choices, first and second highest values choices, motivation level, and a space for adding ACT interest scores which are compatable with this inventory.

Career Decision Making

Career decision-making is a complex process by which career alternatives are examined, selected, and committed to action by an individual.

* Decisions and Outcomes. College Entrance Examination Board, New York, N. Y., 1973.

This product, intended for senior high school students, college students, and other adults, followed Deciding, which is geared to students in grades 7-9, and was built on its decision-making curriculum. Decisions and Outcomes was fieldtested by high school students and adults.

Decisions and Outcomes is designed to help learners develop and apply decision-making skills to complex personal, career, and educational decisions.

- Effective Personal and Career Decision Making. *Westinghouse* Learning Corporation, New York, N. Y., 1976.

This activity-based text/workbook combines readings, exercises, worksheets, charts and tables to teach decision-making skills to high school students. Each chapter of the book specifies learning objectives, presents concepts and definitions, and provides exercises to help students plan, prepare for, and select a lifestyle suitable to their needs. The chapters are entitled: Making Effective Decisions, Clarifying Your Beliefs and Values, Challenging Your Constraining Beliefs, Identifying Your Interests, Assessing Your Abilities, Selecting Your Goals and Making Plans, Anatomy of a Decision, Taking Charge of Your Life, Setting Objectives and Observing Your Progress, and Selecting or Altering Your Environment.

- The Harrington/O'Shea System for Career Decision-Making. Chronicle Guidance Publications, Moravia, N. Y., 1977.

This instrument, developed by Dr. Thomas Harrington, Professor of Counselor Education at Northwestern University, and Dr. Arthur O'Shea, Chairman of the Psychology Department at Boston State College, consists of 189 items that survey self-estimates of abilities, interests, occupational choices, school subjects, plans for the future, and personal job values. Field tests and norms involved over 5,000 subjects and 32 different locations in 20 states. CDM delineates norms for many well-defined groups including minorities. The survey interpretation considers over 500 occupations. CDM is usable with individuals from 8th grade to adult.

- Career Decision Making. Counseling Films, Madison, Wisconsin, 1975.

This 16mm color film is 27 minutes long and designed to help people learn how to make wise career decisions. The film shows how a group of high school students learn the decision-making process through individual and group counseling. The students are guided through eight decision-making steps.

- Decision Making for Career Development. Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

This program, which contains four audio-cassette tapes, 30 student response books, and one program guide is designed to provide a series of role-playing situations which will enable students in grades 8-adult to analyze decisions and the decision-making process. The tapes contain narration for one model session and nine role-playing sessions. The student booklets provide a means of follow-up to the role-playing sessions and the program guide gives rationale and procedures for the program. The program can be used in social studies, psychology and communication classes.

Placement

Placement is a service to assist students in taking their next step in career development, either through continuing their education or obtaining employment.

- * Akron-Summit County Placement Project. Anthony O'Leary, Director, 80 W. Center Street, Akron, Ohio. 44308.

The Akron-Summit County Placement Service was established to assist youth in obtaining employment. The placement service works closely with community agencies, local industry, counselors, teachers, and other school personnel to achieve its mission. Placement services are available on a year-round basis to high school graduates, seniors, and dropouts. The agency maintains active communication with the business world to strengthen educational programs and to respond to employer needs.

The program serves 19 high school districts and a population of over 3,000 seniors and high school dropouts. Services are provided to students during their senior year and for one year after they exit school.

- * A Manual for Conducting Follow-Up Surveys of Former Vocational Students. Research and Development Series No. 106. The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1975.

Field-tested procedures to collect follow-up data on former students of vocational educational programs are described in this document. The procedures presented are designed to facilitate the collection, analysis, and reporting of information on jobs obtained and their relationship to training programs, and income, geographic mobility, and the satisfaction of former students. The questionnaire data collection procedures and examples of possible output formats are presented, with 8 figures and 22 tables supplementing the discussion. Field-tested procedures include identification of the population, file preparation, the questionnaire, preorientation of the population, mailing sequence, sequence of events, and interpretation of data. Advantages and disadvantages of collecting follow-up data from teachers as opposed to students are discussed. The developmental phase of a follow-up of former vocational students in Kentucky includes information on the development of the instrument, data collection, and development of a software package for processing and analyzing the data. These data, along with examples of the kinds of output and interpretation which may be generated using these procedures, make up the appendix.

* A step-By-Step Guide to Job Placement. Bureau of Vocational Education, Augusta, Maine, 1976.

This 40-page publication is a procedural guide for educators who want to provide students with job-placement skills. Using placement models developed at Mt. Ararat School, Topsham, Maine, this guide outlines two basic placement models (school-based and placement team) and two alternative approaches (regional center and senior placement assistant). It also suggests various methods for organising and managing placement programs.

This guide is also designed to teach job-seeking and job-keeping skills and aid students in locating appropriate employment. It provides sample outlines for counselor visitation forms, employer surveys, resumes and letters of application, phone call forms, mock interview and work games, follow-up cards, evaluation sheets, and final evaluation charts.

* Placement and Follow-up. Shippen, S. J., and Wasil, R. A. Xerox Individualized Publishing, Lexington, Massachusetts, 1977.

This publication presents a view of current theory and practice in job placement and follow-up for students and practitioners. Articles by nationally recognized experts in the field of guidance, placement, and follow-up are offered under six topics representing components in the process of placement: information, exploration, counseling, placement, follow-up, and legislation. The articles represent either the theoretical approach based on research findings, or the "nuts and bolts" approach describing actual practice.

* Transitional Career Placement in the Rural Schools. Madison, Wisconsin: Vocational Studies Center, University of Wisconsin, 1976.

This program is designed to give school staff aid in preparing youth for the transition from school to work. It is designed to provide job-finding and job-getting skills and help in obtaining opportunities desired. Specific practice in interviewing, writing letters of application, meeting and talking with employers, and techniques for analyzing and assessing opportunities are presented. An additional focus of the program gives placement staff help in increasing the range of placement opportunities for high school graduates, plus specific suggestions for home and community involvement and ways of enlisting cooperation from employers. This program is designed specifically for the rural school and rural community.

Employability skills

Employability skills are the abilities and techniques needed to acquire and retain a job. They include skills such as job hunting techniques, job interviewing, and satisfactory work habits.

* The Adkins Life Skills Program, Employability Skill Series. The Psychological Corporation, New York, N. Y., 1976.

There are 10 units in this program that are designed as a structured but flexible curriculum to meet specific behavioral objectives related to choosing, finding, getting, and keeping jobs. These units are:
"Who I Am and Where I Want to Go"
"Ten Occupational Fields: How Do I Explore Them"
"Jobs and Training: Beginning the Search"
"Employment Agencies and Personal Contracts"
"Choosing a Good Job for Myself"
"Planning for Personal Goals"
"Developing a Vocational Plan"
"Looking Good on Paper"
"The Job Interview: How to be Effective"
"Keeping My Job: Habits that Help"

This practice is designed to be led by a "Life Skills Educator" who is supplied with a manual for conducting each unit. Materials include student manuals, videotapes, and audio cassettes.

* What Color is Your Parachute? Ten Speed Press, Berkeley, California, 1976.

This illustrated book is designed to assist individuals who are in the process of job-hunting. It provides information on topics such as which methods of job-hunting and career-changing work best, and how to change careers without lengthy retraining. A careful step-by-step plan is described on how to obtain a job on one's own, how to find the jobs that are never advertised, and how to choose experts who can help.

* Coping in the World of Work: Practice in Problem Solving. The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1976.

This unit, which includes an instructor's manual, student guides, filmstrip/cassette, transparencies, and master copies of usable items for students, is designed to help students in grades 11 and 12 make the transition from school to work. After completing the tested unit, students are acquainted with various job adjustment problems, familiar with the five-step problem-solving approach, and able to use the problem-solving approach in simulated real-life situations. The unit is designed for 10-30 class periods.

- Finding Your Best Job. Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1977.

This instructional guide for teachers or counselors to help provide job-seeking skills provides information on skills needed to secure a job, especially one's first career job. This job-seeking model presents both idealistic and realistic elements. Idealism is stressed in the job search and selection process, and realism is emphasized regarding one's limitations. Rather than proposing methods appropriate to all students, this guide is designed to encourage instructors to adapt the suggested lessons, worksheets, and other teaching/learning activities to fit their unique situations. This guide is divided into three sections: job-seeking skills, instruction, and lesson guides, plus 110 sample tests for job evaluations.

- Job Survival Skills Program. Singer, Rochester, N. Y., 1973.

This 61-page participant's workbook is designed to be used with other materials and activities of the Job Survival Skills program to increase the prospective employee's ability to understand and use the personal and interpersonal skills necessary in getting and keeping a job. Each of the chapters includes readings, exercises, and worksheets.

Equity

Equity programs are designed to insure equal career planning opportunities for special groups such as women, minorities, and students with special needs.

- Sex-Fairness in Career Guidance. Abt Associates, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1976.

Sex-Fairness in Career Guidance, a learning kit program, provides strategies for developing and conducting workshops, teaching counselor education, developing a career education syllabus, and establishing a sex-fair guidance library. The kit was carefully planned and tested in secondary and postsecondary schools and provides a variety of instructional techniques to achieve curriculum objectives with a broad range of student populations.

- Career Options for Women. Volumes, I, II, and III. Human Sciences Press, New York, N. Y., 1977.

The three volumes of Career Options for Women are entitled, "A Counselor's Source Book." they are designed to be companions to currently available texts in career guidance and counseling. The emphasis is on recent advantages in counseling on up-to-date information about women's participation in the labor market and about current education and training opportunities. An effort was made to identify important resources for further information on all topics mentioned. Included is a synopsis of the major scholarly materials about women and the world of work. Guidance is given regarding work problems and their solutions for women in the seventies.

- Project PRICE (materials for the educable retarded). Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Associates Drive, Reston, Virginia, 22091.

The U. S. Office of Education's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped contracted with the University of Missouri-Columbia to explore the state of the art and develop an inservice model to educate personnel on how to provide more relevant instruction and supportive services for educable, mentally retarded students (hereafter referred to as EMR) within a career education context.

The project had three major goals:

1. To develop an in-service/staff developmental model to educate regular and special education personnel to provide effective career education services to EMR students in K-12 programs;
2. To identify and develop appropriate types of techniques, materials, and experiences so that school personnel could work more effectively with EMR students in a career education context;
3. To complete and disseminate the resulting inservice/staff development training program so that it could be utilized throughout the country by school systems desiring to adopt the career education approach.

* Assertive Black--Puzzled White. Impact Publishers, Inc., San Luis Obispo, California, 1977.

This book presents a positive program for developing black self-assertion and personal effectiveness. Dr. Cheek uses assertive training as his vehicle for developing skills in effective self-expression "ready-made for blacks." His book interweaves the psycho-historical implications of the black experience in America with an assertiveness training program designed specifically for blacks. Particularly important is his presentation of the way in which black assertiveness is misinterpreted by whites. Dr. Cheek gives extensive examples for black application of assertiveness training. He offers practical tools and a step-by-step foundation for those who counsel blacks.

* Career Guidance Practices for Disadvantaged Youth. The American Personnel and Guidance Assocation, Washington, D.C. 1974.

This monograph, sponsored by the National Vocational Guidance Association, discusses the disadvantaged student's needs and describes behavioral obejctives as they relate to accomplishing the goal of self-development and understanding the world of work. This document describes 22 activities which can help to enhance skills in career development and guidance. Relevant materials are listed for practice selection and implementation.

The foregoing by no means exhaust the list of exemplary programs. They are intended only as a sampling to illustrate the range of possible programs which can be readily adopted by others. For additional programs the reader is directed to supplementary sources listed in the Appendix.

Adoption Considerations

Walz (in press) warns us that adopting innovative practices is more than merely buying and installing; additional preparatory effort is needed.

> Career guidance programs will not become more effective solely because innovative practices have been identified, nor will the adoption of a singular promising practice be the catalyst for significant program improvement. Counselors must be as attentive to how they implement a practice as they are to what they implement. They must facilitate changes in career guidance programs and practices through a planful, systematic process. Only by giving attention to the means used to promote change and by acquiring skills in the process of change can they increase the likelihood that career guidance practices will produce significant program outcomes. (Ch. 8)

Walz and Benjamin (1978) see change agentry as the key for adopting new programs. They have outlined a seven-step change model for guidance personnel. Briefly the steps are as follows:

1. Establishing the Need for change, which change agents may perceive, while others may not. They recommend jarring the system out of its complacency. Often this can be accomplished through a needs assessment.

2. Building Interactive Relationships, through a core of allies who recognize the need for change. The core should be developed to form initial momentum.

3. Assessing the problem and clearly setting shared goals and outcomes.

4. Generating options for change.

5. Deciding on direction through truly shared consensus.

6. Facilitating adoption and implementation, i.e., fostering the change from the "blueprint" stage to the reality stage.

7. Refining and renewing, which is the ongoing process of improving the program.

Walz and Benjamin (1978) also have identified common "roadblocks" to change. They are:

1. Nonspecific change efforts--a lack of specificity about what is to be changed.

2. Disregard of previous change efforts--the failure to analyze previous efforts.

3. Hit and miss change--the attempt to change without examining the effect of the change on the total program.

4. Authoritative change--mandated change, often inappropriate and lacking grass roots credibility and support.

5. Glacier change approach--the premature massing of people to support a change. The careful timing of when to involve key individuals and groups is critical to successful change.

Recommendations

The successful implementation of exemplary programs requires the concerted effort of numerous professionals. Perhaps the most vital are persons in key leadership roles, such as counselor educators, and state and local directors of guidance who can facilitate change. The following recommendations are addressed to these groups.

For Counselor Educators

1. Establish courses in the design and implementation of exemplary guidance programs.

2. Offer seminars in change agentry, especially encouraging cooperative dialog and participation with local schools and state departments of education.

3. Foster the establishment of internships for students in various guidance settings who are willing to assist in the design and installation of exemplary programs.

4. Encourage research efforts which facilitate exemplary guidance programs such as needs assessment, roadblocks to change, and behavioral assessment of programs.

For State and Local Directors of Guidance

Since the recommendations for state and local directors of guidance are similar except for their administrative level and span of effort, they are listed together to minimize redundancy.

1. Provide inservice training to acquaint guidance personnel with innovative programs.

2. Facilitate the adoption of exemplary programs by assisting schools to remove the roadblocks and barriers to change.

3. Encourage brainstorming sessions and open dialog on what can be done to improve programs.

4. Publicize innovative programs through various media such as newsletters, educational television, or special announcements.

5. Arrange to speak at key local and state meetings to obtain support of critical leverage groups, e.g., school boards, legislators, parent-teacher associations, and citizen groups.

6. Alert schools to funding opportunities for the adoption of exemplary programs.

7. Install and showcase demonstrations of exemplary programs.

For Counselors

1. Develop a plan to keep aware of new exemplary programs which might be candidates for your school. Your plan might include attending workshops and professional association meetings; scanning journals, newsletters, and brochures; and establishing personal contacts with key resource persons.

2. Build a nucleus of school allies who are concerned with improving guidance and who may be willing to share the tasks of installing an exemplary program. One possible mechanism is to

initiate an informal study committee of volunteers. Another strategy might be to hold an open forum from which volunteers could be sought.

3. Increase your skills and knowledge of developing and installing exemplary programs through postgraduate course work and/or individual study.

4. Arrange to visit exemplary programs which might be transportable to your school. To get the most out of your visit, develop a plan or checklist of what you need to know about the program for possible adoption for your school, e.g., installation costs, staffing, facilities, special problems, and planning time.

5. Exchange program ideas with other schools. You might be able to share the testing of a new program or trade experiences in the testing of components of a larger program such as a series of career exploration units.

6. Investigate the possibilities of local support and sponsorship through your school and community for installing an exemplary program. You might be surprised to find that there are local agencies who are willing to provide full or partial support for sound ideas such as the National Alliance of Business Men, foundations, philanthropic organizations, citizen groups, and industry. Most of these are listed in the yellow pages of the telephone directory.

7. Develop a master comprehensive guidance program plan which lays out a roadmap of the total program you eventually hope to achieve.

A master plan can be a valuable communication aid to show others how individual program components will be added progressively to accomplish a comprehensive program.

For example, your total plan might include a provision for a yet-to-be-installed job placement service which will complement other currently operational components of your comprehensive program.

Several models for developing comprehensive programs are available such as the Career Planning Support System, and the Missouri Comprehensive Guidance Program. They are described in Campbell, et al., 1978.

Conclusions: Future Needs and Developments

From this brief review of developing exemplary guidance programs, three fairly explicit conclusions can be drawn concerning imperatives for the future:

1. Developments in program technology, *i.e*., the construction of new practices, are outdistancing adoption. In other words, substantial numbers of exemplary programs are available for adoption, but due to administrative and funding constraints they are not being adopted. Consequently, programs are maintaining the status quo and showing very little evidence of positive change.

2. Guidance needs to aim for the construction of a comprehensive program plan, *i.e*., a well-conceptualized master plan rather than piece-

meal efforts. Achieving comprehensive plans will require aggressive lobbying and considerable coordinated team effort.

3. Master program planning and subsequent program installation is very time consuming. Guidance personnel cannot be expected to achieve sound program planning and installation as an add-on to their regular duties. The task will never get done. Release time needs to be provided. This is difficult since ongoing programs need to be maintained; but perhaps through creative time management, release time could be arranged.

The author hopes that the foregoing information will stimulate your thinking about improving your guidance program. Numerous suggestions and resources have been suggested to facilitate new initiatives. Why not start now? Make it a personal goal to install an exemplary program or, at the least, to generate the groundwork for moving in this direction. Half the battle is getting started, but getting started may be easier than you think. Kick around ideas with your colleagues--you may find many supportive allies who are willing to help to build that initial momentum.

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APPENDIX

Supplementary Sources of Career Guidance Programs

Career Guidance-Related Journals and Newsletters

AVA Guidance Division Newsletter. The Center for Vocational Education, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210. Attention: Helen Rodebaugh. Four/Year.

Career Digest. Indiana Career Resource Center, 1201-09 South Greenlawn Avenue, South Bend, Indiana 46615. Monthly.

Career Education/Career Guidance Newsletter. SIG: CE/CG Newsletter, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, VPI and SV, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061. Included with membership in the Special Interest Group (SIG) on Career Education-Career Guidance American Educational Research Association.

Career Education Digest. Educational Properties, Inc., 3303 Harbor Boulevard, Suite H-6, Costa Mesa, California 92626. Twelve/Year-$10.00. Single Copy-$1.50.

Career Education News. Bobit Publishing Company, 1155 Waukegan Road, Glenview, Illinois 60025. First and Fifteenth of every month (September through June) Fifteenth of the month (July and August). $50.00 per year (additional subscriptions mailed to same subscriber $8.50 each).

The Career Education Workshop. Parker Publishing Company, Inc. Route 59A at Brookhill Drive, West Nyack, New York 10994. Ten/Year $36.00.

Career World. Curriculum Innovations, Inc., 501 Lake Forest Avenue, Highwood, Illinois 60040. Monthly during school year-$3.50 per student school year (minimum 15 subscriptions to one address).

Commission Circular. National Commission for Cooperative Education, 360 Huntington Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02115.

Counselor's Information Service. B'nai B'rith Career and Counseling Services, 1640 Rhode Island Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036. Four/Year-$9.00

Illinois Career Education Journal. Illinois Office of Education, 100 North First Street, Springfield, Illinois 62777. Four/Year.

Journal of Career Education. College of Education, 103 Industrial Education Building, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, Missouri 65201. Four/Year-$8.00.

National Center for Career Education Newsletter. University of Montana, P. O. Box 7815, Missoula, Montana, 59807. Bi-monthly.

National Career Information Center Inform. American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20009. Monthly except June and July. Price to APGA members-$15.00. Nonmembers-$25.00. (Subscribers also receive Career Resource Bibliography.)

Vocational Guidance Quarterly. American Personnel and Guidance Association. 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Four/Year-$10.00. Single copy-$3.00. (Membership in the National Vocational Guidance Association includes receipt of the Quarterly.)

Supplementary Sources of Career Guidance Practices

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Career Education Clearinghouse. The Ohio State University. The Center for Vocational Education, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210. Dr. Marla Peterson, Director. (614) 486-3655.

Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse. The University of Michigan, Room 2108, School of Education Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109. Dr. Garry R. Walz, Director. (313) 764-9492.

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3 research in guidance

Edwin L. Herr

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RESEARCH IN GUIDANCE

Edwin L. Herr

After explaining the current concern for guidance research, the author relates this research to four areas of the counselor's professional maturity: program planning, professional competence, professional preparation, and accountability. He then addresses the critical question, "Does guidance work?" by offering several knowledge generalizations in a number of guidance areas, together with some of the references from which the generalizations were derived. These range from characteristics of the effective counselor to career planning for disadvantaged youth. The article concludes with a list and analysis of types of guidance research which the author feels require direct action in the immediate future.

Areas of Concern for Research in Guidance

Why a concern for research in guidance?

Many reasons can be cited for the current interest in research in guidance. The scarcity of funds to support social services and the resulting need to identify and implement those believed to be most effective is an obvious factor. Another is the scientific cast of our society which gives credence to the notion that if anything is happening to people or institutions as a result of some form of intervention, the results should be observable and measureable.

A third factor spurring research in guidance lies within the current level of maturity experienced by guidance services themselves. As guidance services are emerging from their infancy and adolescence, Federal legislation and various types of other educational or human development documents clearly acknowledge that they are capable of making a positive impact on the quality of life experienced by children, youth, and adults. Consequently, various publics are indicating that while guidance processes need to be more available and more widely distributed across the sub-groups making up the American population, there is a need to remove the chaff and the irrelevance as fully as possible.

As guidance, either as a concept or as a program, has become increasingly perceived as an essential component of education, rehabilitation, and social reformation, the questions directed to it have changed. Current questions deal less with whether guidance does any good and much more with what is guidance good for: Who should receive guidance services and when are these most appropriate? How do various processes differ in their effectiveness--for whom and under what conditions? How do persons who have participated in guidance processes differ from those who have not, and do such differences persist over time?

While this analysis of factors stimulating research in guidance significantly oversimplifies reality, the appropriate reaction of guidance practitioners should not be defensiveness but professional proactivity. In order for guidance to advance its contributions to its various consumers, it also must advance its professional maturity. Both of these broad goals require a research base.

Research in guidance relates to at least four areas of direct concern to the counselor's professional maturity. These are program planning, professional competence, professional preparation, and accountability. While not mutually exclusive, these four areas help to translate the importance of research in guidance from an abstraction to a vital ingredient of practice.

Program Planning

If there is a guidance legacy from the 1960's to the 1970's, it is the growing insistence that guidance be implemented as a comprehensive and systematically planned program rather than as a set of essentially independent services. In order to legitimize a guidance program, however, a research base must be available to provide insight into program goals and student behaviors which the program might reasonably be expected to effect, to identify those guidance processes which have been found to yield the types of individual behavior sought, and to identify the behavioral indicators which are pertinent to program accountability. Without using what is known about guidance as fully as possible in program planning, the linkage between research findings and practice is tenuous and weak.

Pressing the point still further suggests that program planning is really an exercise in designing change-producing conditions. As such, the plan for a guidance program actually represents a series of hypotheses that if a particular guidance process occurs, a particular type of individual behavior will result (e.g., effective decision-making, increased self knowledge, broader understanding of career options). Implied is the assumption that such behavioral change would not occur, at least to the degree hypothesized, if systematic guidance interventions were not present. A primary reason for research in guidance, then, is to help the program planner make probability statements about what program goals are feasible and which guidance processes are capable of yielding the desired results, and communicate realistic expectations to consumers and decision-makers about the guidance program's likely effects.

Professional Competence

Program planning is only one form of counselor competence which is enhanced by research in guidance. Whether he or she wishes to be so, the professional counselor of today is being inexorably drawn into the role of "applied behavioral scientist." In essence, such a perspective expects the counselor to evaluate systematically and apply eclectically a variety of techniques to a range of human problems. Such a perspective acknowledges the limitations of single-theory-bound approaches to the wide-ranging interventions required by the complexity of human behavior and institutions.

The use of accumulated knowledge in guidance becomes increasingly critical as counselors continue to depart from traditional one-to-one relationships with their counselees and to use any ethical techniques which will facilitate behavioral change. Research in guidance provides the conceptual base for understanding individual differences in human behavior, creating diagnostic schemes for classifying the reasons for these differences and the accompanying goals for change, and establishing a repertoire of change strategies from which to make professional choices. No specialists aspiring to be considered professional can achieve such status without a conceptual base from which to derive their competence in judgment and action.

Professional Preparation

Preparing professional counselors requires a process of socialization to the attitudes, concepts, problems, and actions which comprise personal competence. Research in guidance represents the base of such preparation in both content and process. Counselors in preparation must come to terms with the enormity of the knowledge base required to function professionally. Without a research base, counselors in preparation are likely to operate from a context of theory and faith, rather than from a considered set of insights as to the kinds of expectancies counselees bring to the counseling relationship; the effects of counselee characteristics upon the shape and content of interactions with the counselor; the effects of counselor preferences for certain types of problems and counselee characteristics on these interactions; and the types of counseling technologies available, their rationale, and their empirical base. Beyond such insights, however, there is also the matter of the blend of didactic and experiential elements likely to affect counselor socialization and competence. Obviously, if a requirement for professionalization is an empirical base from which to derive action, research in guidance is most fundamental in importance during the process of counselor preparation.

Accountability

The terms "research," "evaluation," and "accountability" are frequently used interchangeably. While research findings are important to both evaluation and accountability, in actuality research is important independent of either. Accountability and evaluation, as typically used, convey the idea of providing evidence that one has done what was intended, e.g., a program has achieved its objectives, a person has accomplished a goal. Implicit in both accountability and evaluation is the notion that evidence has been collected in relation to some set of criteria.

Research is typically defined as the collection, organization, and interpretation of data in an effort to answer questions. The questions which guide a particular research design fall into two broad categories: those which increase a knowledge base in some academic discipline or theoretical category, and those which improve the practice or conduct of some enterprise. Research of this first type is usually called "fundamental," "basic," or "theoretical." Research of the second type is likely to be described as "applied," "operational," or "action" research, although these terms are not truly synonymous.

Both basic and applied research are important to accountability.

Basic research is quite useful in providing insights about behavior which can be expected from a particular population, establishing appropriate goals for a guidance program, identifying principles by which behavior is learned or changed, and suggesting relevant criteria by which program goals can be judged. Applied research is likely to be more useful in considering the effects of guidance processes or media upon client behavior, attitudes, and skills.

Research findings and methods provide the information on which accountability, the valuing of the research findings, is based. Once research answers to a particular accountability concern are obtained, someone still must decide what to do about them: Compare them with baseline data or some other set of criteria, interpret them to different audiences, use them to revise or add new elements to a program, or accept them as adequate evidence that a program is yielding the desired outcomes.

In sum, research in guidance is important as a reservoir of insights pertinent to program planning, as a conceptual base from which professional competence derives, as a stimulus to the socialization and skill development of counselors in preparation, and as the content which makes accountability judgments informed judgments.

Critical Questions in Guidance

Does Guidance Work?

Underlying any of the reasons for doing research in guidance is the question, "Does guidance work?" Posed in such terms, however, the question cannot be answered. Guidance is not a singular process leading to a singular result. The term guidance subsumes a group of processes based upon different philosophical perspectives that occurs in many different settings, and is offered to persons possessing a range of individual differences.

No single study, regardless of its complexity, can answer the global question of the effectiveness of guidance. Instead, guidance effectiveness must be determined from the accumulated weight of evidence from a large pool of separate studies dealing with a variety of guidance approaches, models, and outcomes. Paraphrasing a similar problem in psychotherapy examined by Paul (46), the appropriate question is not "Does guidance work?" but rather, "What guidance process, by what kind of counselor, under what circumstances, is most effective for a particular type of person with a specific problem?"

Stated in such a fashion, it then becomes possible to consider the precise questions which really allow the gathering of evidence in behalf of guidance. The importance of counselor-counselee characteristics and interaction can be taken into account. The comparative difficulty of certain types of problems can be recognized. The need for questions about comparative processes can be reinforced, e.g., Is the use of a specific theoretical approach in individual or group counseling more effective for reducing specific adaptive problems, facilitating decision-making, or preventing certain types of crises?

Does Guidance Have an Empirical Base?

If the question "Does guidance work?" cannot be answered definitively in one succinct study or statement, the second question becomes, "Is there any useful research base pertinent to guidance?" The answer is affirmative. How affirmative depends upon how rigorous one's expectations of research design and procedures are before the findings are accepted. It also depends upon the kind of question asked about guidance processes or outcomes.

Since guidance processes derive their theoretical rationale and content from multiple disciplines--e.g., psychology, economics, mathematics, sociology, and anthropology--and sub-specialities in these fields, research bearing upon the efficacy of guidance is distributed widely in the professional literature. Empirical findings about guidance are available in conventional places--research journals and doctoral dissertations; and in less conventional places--program evaluation reports for different government agencies and unpublished papers available in such systems as ERIC. Unfortunately, much of this literature has not been assembled in a way that portrays coherently the full extent of the empirical base for guidance. Nor is it really clear what questions about guidance can or cannot be answered. There are clearly some major voids in the empirical base on which guidance rests. But there is no comprehensive matrix of answers that will allow us to state with confidence how far the field has progressed in securing an adequate research base.

Given these various caveats, it is useful, nevertheless, to be aware of major knowledge generalizations relevant to guidance. Many of these, with some explanatory comments, are inventoried in the next section. While not an exhaustive list, the generalizations cited give an overview of much that is now known about guidance-related topics. Since these generalizations are drawn from evidence found in multiple studies, no attempt has been made to cite all relevant references although, where appropriate, selected references are noted.[1]

Where Are We Now? Knowledge Generalizations in Guidance

Characteristics of the Effective Counselor

As increasingly sophisticated research designs have been applied to the outcomes of counseling and psychotherapy in particular, the frequent finding of null results obscures the fact that some counselors help people and some counselors do not. This pooling of the results of therapeutic and nontherapeutic counselors rather consistently cancels out the separate affects of each. A large body of research literature distinguishing between therapeutic and nontherapeutic counselors has now consistently isolated counselor behaviors which yield positive interactions between counselors and counselees and result in constructive client change.

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[1] The numbers in parentheses following each generalization refer to only a few of the sources from which the generalizations were drawn. They were provided by the author at the editor's request to assist readers who might wish to explore the research further.

1. There are therapeutic and nontherapeutic counselors. Both groups can be identified and trained (unless personality defects preclude) to provide the conditions which produce constructive behavioral and personality change. (8, 27)

2. Regardless of the different theoretical positions which guide the specific techniques used by particular counselors, therapeutic counselors tend to share many common characteristics. (8, 27)

3. Experienced counselors, regardless of their theoretical orientation, tend to be more alike than different in their provision of certain interpersonal conditions. (8, 27)

4. Whether conceived as wholly sufficient in their own right or as minimum essentials to effective counselor-counselee interactions, interpersonal skills basic to therapeutic counselors include the provision of accurate empathic understanding, the communication of respect, nonpossessive warmth, personal genuineness, and concreteness or specificity of expression. (8, 27)

Long-Term Gains from Exposure to Guidance

Of all of the knowledge generalizations cited in this section, those associating long-term gains with guidance-related processes are the most tenuous. This is true principally because few longitudinal studies of such phenomena have been conducted. The inclusion of the following knowledge generalizations stems from the quality of each research design as well as from the fact that the gains cited are consistent with the short-term gains documented in a much larger repertoire of studies.

1. It has been found in longitudinal follow-ups as long as 25 years later that persons so exposed to counseling and related guidance processes in high school or college can be distinguished from their peers who did not participate in guidance and counseling on such criteria as higher income and contributions to society. (16)

2. In follow-up studies of high school students 2-1/2 years, 5 years, and 10 years after high school, comparing those randomly assigned to extensive counseling and guidance services in high school (experimental) with those who were not excluded from such services but who received no special counseling efforts (controls), differences are found. The experimental students had better academic records both in high school and after; they had made more realistic and more consistent vocational choices and were more likely to stick with their first choice; they had made more progress in their employment; they were more satisfied with their lives. (40, 51)

3. Career adjustment at ages 25 and beyond is related to awareness of choices to be made; information and planning bearing on choices; and possessing and being able to use occupational, psychological, educational, and economic information while students are in the secondary school. (60)

Short-Term Gains from Exposure to Guidance

Most studies of guidance outcomes have used the verbal behavior of students or their responses to a written instrument as evidence of the effectiveness of a particular guidance procedure. In most instances, the effects of guidance have been tested immediately following the completion of the procedure or within a reasonably short time thereafter (usually not more than a year). This section deals with criterion variables which have been commonly used to assess the outcomes of guidance.

Self-esteem, self-concept, and mental health.

1. Students exposed to guidance processes tend to organize their concepts about themselves in a more coherent way and to reconcile their differences between ideal and real self-concepts more effectively than persons without such experiences. (62)

2. Students who have been helped by counselors to evaluate their problems, to break them into components, and to master these components one at a time gain self-confidence. (6, 27)

3. Minority students who are assisted to decide upon vocational objectives are typically found to have more positive self-concepts and higher ideal selves than those who do not have such objectives. (65, 32)

4. The degree of self-esteem possessed by students relates to the appropriateness of vocational choice and to high school achievement. (56, 44)

5. A rise in the self-esteem of students exposed to guidance and other counseling processes is related to reduction in dropout rates, reduction in daily absence, and improvement in conduct and social adjustment. (6, 62, 29)

Decision-making.

1. Guidance processes do help students to become competent decision-makers, and to select high school courses and make high school plans more congruent with their abilities than is true of students not exposed to such processes. (62, 29, 57)

2. Guidance processes can help students sharpen and/or commit themselves to educational and occupational actions on the basis of personal values. (62, 29, 27)

3. Decision-making processes can be taught to junior high and senior high school students within a guidance and counseling setting using a variety of modeling techniques, sequential learning exercises, and activity packages. (10, 29, 41)

4. Directed learning by students of decision-making processes is more effective than nondirected practice. Such directed learning aids in the transfer of decision-making skills to real-life circumstances outside of guidance and counseling settings. (22, 10, 29)

5. Through group problem-solving methods, students can be helped to understand the relationship between educational and vocational development, to clarify goals, and to acquire skill in identifying and using relevant information for their decision-making needs. (4, 35, 58)

6. Men and women students with identifiable educational goals--reasons why they are doing what they are doing--seem consistently to be better prepared for college than students who have no such reasons for being in college. (30)

Career planning.

1. Students exposed to systematically-planned career guidance classes dealing with such topics as values clarification, decision-making, job satisfaction, sources of occupational information, workpower projections, and career planning make greater gains in self-knowledge and relating self-knowledge to occupations and to engage in more career planning activities than students who have not participated in such classes. (29, 45, 10)

2. Student users of computer-based career guidance systems make larger gains than nonusers in such characteristics as degree of planfulness, knowledge and use of resources for career exploration, awareness of career options open to them, and the risks associated with these options. (43, 29)

3. Individual and group counseling which involves specific skill training in self-assessment, gathering pertinent career information, and planning can enhance student career planning. (57, 58, 29)

4. If students learn about themselves before they are exposed to occupational information, or if they can request such information as they are ready, their career planning is significantly facilitated. (64)

Career development/career education.

1. Short-term counseling (three sessions) with high school students has been found to facilitate the career maturity of these students with regard to such emphases as orientation to decision-making, planfulness, and independence of choice. (23)

2. Guidance films (e.g., "Careers in the 70's") have been found to affect high school students' attitudes positively, to motivate them to seek additional information, and to assist them to make career choices. These outcomes are strengthened when such films are used as part of a planned guidance program. (42, 29)

3. High school students exposed to model-reinforcement and reinforcement counseling participate more intensely in external information-seeking behavior than students not so exposed. (35, 29)

4. The use of simulated occupational experience in guidance and counseling programs has positive effects upon occupational knowledge of secondary school students. (58, 29)

5. On criterion measures in such areas as self-concept, the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, other measures of academic achievement, and school attendance, it is typically found that students exposed to career education do as well as or, in most studies, better than comparison students in traditional classes. (29)

School achievement.

1. In general, significant differences in academic achievement and in realistic choice of courses of study are found in favor of groups

exposed to guidance and counseling as compared with those not so exposed. (62, 28, 29, 53, 27)

2. The importance of desiring what one has chosen rather than having little or no personal investment in the choice or being at the whim of others is a factor in academic success in college, and such behavior is aided by guidance processes. (30)

3. Either group or individual counseling extending over a reasonable period of time helps students whose ability is average or above to improve their scholastic performance if they choose to participate in it. Better results are likely if guidance processes focus on the causes of underachievement and ways to remedy them than if a more general approach is taken. (62, 7, 53, 27)

4. Teams of counselors, teachers, principals, and parents who work closely together in dealing with emotional or social problems that interfere with the use of children's intellectual potential help to increase general levels of student academic achievement. (48, 11)

5. Guidance and counseling processes integrated with remedial instruction in mathematics and reading have been found to increase academic achievement significantly. (11, 21, 29)

Racial integration in education.

1. In schools undergoing integration counselors who are specially trained to provide personal counseling, resolve interpersonal conflicts, and coordinate classes designed to improve students' human relations skills and their understanding of different racial/ethnic groups do

prevent or reduce racial prejudice and conflict. (32, 19, 26)

2. Group counseling which focuses on problems of an interracial nature and the promotion of understanding and openness among students from different cultural backgrounds can create a more relaxed atmosphere in a school and increase intergroup understanding. (12)

3. Small face-to-face discussion groups led by experienced counselors can assist school personnel to explore their own attitudes, values, and feelings regarding ethnic differences. This personal understanding in addition to human relations and communication skill-training is effective in facilitating intergroup relations and school desegregation. (12, 19, 26)

Transition to work and work adjustment.

1. Guidance and counseling processes can help the young worker to sort out available work choices, consider personal commitments to work, and develop feelings of psychological competence in the work place. (62, 29, 27, 3)

2. Young workers who have been trained in job search and interview skills, communication, and human relations at work are more likely to make an effective transition to work than those who have not. (3)

3. Behavior rehearsal in which young workers can act out or role play with a counselor specific work-related social and interpersonal problems is more effective in resolving such problems than direct advice. (38)

4. For young persons, disadvantaged and others, preoccupied with economic issues, it is more effective if guidance and counseling are

focused on job placement, leaving broader matters of work adjustment until after the person secures a job and begins to work. (3, 27, 29)

5. Disadvantaged youth who participate in counseling are more likely to achieve salary increases and job satisfaction than those who do not. (29)

Special Populations

Under the influence of Federal legislation, particularly, and in response to apparent needs, considerable effort has been expended by guidance practitioners to assist young people with special characteristics. Research about the short-term effects of guidance with such persons is not extensive, but it does identify general outcomes worthy of consideration.

Juvenile delinquents.

1. The provision of adult basic education, general educational development, and vocational courses to institutionalized juvenile delinquents is likely to be more effective if career counseling is also offered than if it is not. (37, 31, 63)

2. Counseling and support services, including peer counseling, can reduce the rate of recidivism for truancy, running away, and ungovernability among predelinquent children. (61, 63, 20)

3. Specific programs designed to prevent, control, and eliminate dropouts or delinquent behavior should include combinations of educational assistance, vocational training and placement, recreational activities, and counseling. (13)

4. Individual counseling in combination with counselor-connected training programs designed to develop interpersonal, physical, emotional, and intellectual skills which can be applied to home, school, and community problem areas can reduce the recidivism rate for youthful offenders. (20, 31)

Mentally retarded youth.

1. Modeling and reinforcement counseling with educable retarded youngsters is effective in facilitating knowledge of how to get a job and in stimulating job-seeking behavior. (34)

2. Counseling and testing combined with training in basic job skills are effective in increasing employment or entrance into further career training among mentally retarded youth. (34)

Disadvantaged youth.

1. Guidance and counseling for disadvantaged youth are effective when linked to a direct service such as job placement. Until the economic situation of disadvantaged youth is improved, however, it is unlikely that such youth can be helped with other areas of concern. (50, 29, 27)

2. Combining counseling with the use of indigenous role models who have succeeded in educational and occupational options is effective with inner-city youth. (29, 36)

3. Comprehensive programs involving self-awareness activities, job-seeking skills, and peer interaction through group sessions, counseling, career materials displays, testing, and information meetings do cause

observable, positive changes among rural youth. (47, 41)

Families.

1. When parents also receive counselor-conducted training in the development of interpersonal, physical, emotional, and intellectual skills and the application of these skills to home, school, and community problem areas, the recidivism rate for youthful offenders is reduced. (20)

2. Parent counseling provided to adolescent mothers is useful in increasing the number who graduate from high school, the number who pursue college studies, and the degree of confidence these young mothers have in their maternal roles. (36)

3. When families of rehabilitation clients are also provided counseling, the clients themselves are likely to obtain better grades, advance more in school and training, have fewer job changes, and receive higher ratings from employers than rehabilitation clients whose families do not receive counseling. (24)

Guidance Processes

Some research in guidance is oriented to determining the characteristics of a particular guidance process and what happens as a result of it rather than finding out whether it yields a particular outcome identified on *a priori* grounds. Other research is related to the conditions which cause a particular process to operate effectively. This section presents a number of variations on these themes.

Individual counseling.

1. Individually counseled students achieve more success while they are in school and after they leave than those without counseling. (40, 52, 62, 16)

2. Motivated persons usually benefit from individual counseling regardless of the criterion used for judging effectiveness. (62)

3. The more explicitly stated or objective the criteria for counseling are, the more likely that counseling effectiveness will be demonstrated. (27, 29)

4. Individual counseling approaches vary in their effectiveness in reducing anxiety, in mediating psychosomatic disorders, and in desensitizing phobic responses, although in these areas behavioral counseling tends to be more effective than interview-oriented counseling.

5. The higher the degree of therapeutic conditions provided by the counselor, the more likely it is that the counselee will achieve constructive behavioral change. (8, 27)

Group counseling.

1. There seem to be no clear-cut differences between the effectiveness of group and individual counseling where they have been used to achieve the same objectives. For example, either group or individual counseling, extending over a reasonable length of time, helps students whose ability is adequate or better to improve their scholastic performance if they choose to participate in it. (27, 62, 57)

2. Group counseling can effectively facilitate student understanding of the relationship between educational and vocational development, goal

clarification, and the acquisition of skill in identifying and using relevant information for their decision-making needs. Particularly important elements in such group contexts are cueing participants as to appropriate responses and selectively reinforcing goal-relevant statements. (10, 35, 58, 64)

3. Group counseling can be useful in providing some students with collective security to consider certain types of information which would not be possible in individual counseling. (27, 62)

Computer-based guidance systems.

1. Computer-based guidance systems are effective in rapidly retrieving accurate information about a wide range of student concerns and in motivating other information-seeking behavior. (29, 43)

2. Computer-based guidance systems can effectively analyze the discrepancies between student goals and performance or other forms of comparative data to identify students who need specific forms of counselor assistance. (29, 43)

3. Computer-based guidance systems can create approximations of reality by which students can reality-test their preferences and identify appropriate alternative options. (43)

Gaming and simulations.

1. Games and other forms of educational, occupational, or personal-social situations can assist students to rehearse various decision-making strategies and evaluate likely outcomes. (29)

2. Games and other simulations permit students to "try on" various

roles and assess different types of work activity and problem-solving.

3. Games and other simulations permit various types of information to be assimilated by students while they are engaged in activity. For students with reading difficulties, this diminishes problems of information-seeking associated with books and directories as the primary resources. (29)

Comparative effects of guidance processes.

1. In general, guidance processes have been studied in isolation from other processes which might yield more effective outcomes. Therefore, beyond comparisons of individual and group counseling in relation to selected criteria, few attempts have been made to compare systematically the effectiveness of multiple guidance processes in relation to the same criterion. (27, 29, 62)

Counselor Preparation

In addition to a growing clarity about the characteristics of effective counselors, a similar clarity is emerging about the characteristics of effective counselor preparation. Most of the latter research is oriented to the effects of various experiential/practicum approaches to counselor education rather than to its didactic elements, to the effects of systematically training counselor candidates in small increments of counselor behavior, and to the use of various feedback mechanisms in shaping the desired counselor behavior.

1. Some counselor education programs are effective and growth-producing and others are not. The differences seem to lie with the characteristics

of the faculty and the systematic training in therapeutic skills provided to students. (27)

2. Counselors who experience any type of supervised counseling practicum seem to be more effective in such variables as empathy, reflective listening, and genuineness than counselors who do not. (27)

3. Counselors in practicum tend to acquire more skills when the focus is on how they can respond to the counselee rather than on how they feel about the student. For such purposes behavioral approaches rather than relationship approaches to practicum supervision seem to be most effective. (27)

4. As the counseling process is dissected into its specific elements (e.g., attending behavior, opening an interview) and counselor-candidates are trained systematically to perform them through microcounseling and similar processes, the counseling skills of such persons are improved. (27)

5. Systematic training of counselor-candidates in process variables such as empathy and warmth yields higher levels of such behavior than occurs without such systematic training. (27)

6. The provision of feedback about their performance to counselor-candidates via videotape or audiotape is an important stimulus to a critical analysis of relationships and interaction. (27)

Musts for Research in Guidance

It is difficult to distinguish those categories of research which must be undertaken if guidance is to improve significantly its impact in education from research in guidance which would be nice to have. Obviously, this distinction depends upon how an observer views the centrality of guidance in education, the outcomes which should be expected from it, and the characteristics of the empirical base from which it should derive. In the following sections are those types of research in guidance which would appear to require direct action in the immediate future.

Appropriate Criteria for Guidance

To a very large degree, guidance in education has been described by the functions or processes it employs (e.g., individual counseling, testing), not by the objectives it has sought to meet. Such a perspective stems from a wrong assumption. It emphasizes what counselors have been trained to do rather than what a particular group of students needs, how students will be different as a result of guidance intervention, or clarity about the outcomes sought from different forms of guidance intervention.

In essence, guidance research has not adequately focused on the criterion problem. Large lists of guidance objectives are common in guidance program descriptions. But they seem often to be unrelated to the guidance processes available, they tend to lack focus, and they tend to omit behavioral indicators by which specific assessment can occur. While research on the effectiveness of certain guidance procedures in relation to specific criteria does exist, the notion of criteria for a program of guidance and the total impact upon the process of education or upon the development of children within a particular setting is rarely addressed.

Unfortunately, it is easier to be critical about the vagueness and generality of guidance criteria than it is to design research which will improve the situation. Nevertheless, elements which are essential for a clearer understanding of criteria for guidance can be identified. The following would seem to qualify.

1. Criteria for guidance must be sufficiently different from those of the larger educational process that the variables under the control of the guidance program can be clearly established.

2. Criteria for guidance should provide direction in articulation from elementary through secondary schools so that guidance personnel are oriented to common goals and are aware of how guidance efforts at each educational or student development level fit together.

3. Criteria for guidance should not reflect responsibility for all aspects of the lives of children. It must be recognized that teachers, parents, churches, and youth organizations also have an impact on children. To assume that a guidance program can compensate for such diverse influences and make an impact on student behaviors more likely to be effected by other persons or processes is clearly unrealistic.

4. Criteria for guidance should reflect objectives which can be accomplished. Criteria should reflect the realities of resources, time, and counselor competencies. Criteria which are philosophically appealing but possess little likelihood of achievement must be purged

from guidance accountability systems.

5. Criteria for guidance should be directly related to the content and processes of the guidance program. To set up objectives for guidance which are not related directly to the activities, exercises, reading material, and simulated experiences to which students are exposed is planned defeatism. For example, to judge the effectiveness of a guidance program by how many students obtain first jobs related to their high school curriculum if, in fact, the counselors were totally immersed in helping students plan for college, is to evaluate not what occurred but what might have occurred. Such disparity in criteria is not useful.

Much more could be said about the need for research on criteria for guidance. The important fact is that unless there is greater clarity in what are realistic expectations for guidance, and how guidance criteria can be appropriately distinguished from criteria applied to other elements of the educational process, the home, or community organizations, guidance will be perpetually attacked as ineffective--or, it will fade away as a separate professional entity.

Tailor-made Criteria for Individuals

A concern for research designed to bring into clearer focus criteria appropriate to guidance must also consider the matter of tailor-made criteria for individuals. For example, resolution of the problem might be that guidance programs should emphasize the development of educational and career planning among all students rather than be accountable for criteria such as drug abuse prevention, dropout prevention, truancy, or job placement. If that were so, the question then becomes, Should all students change along some dimensions important to educational and career planning in accordance with some general criteria? Or, Should tailor-made criteria be established based upon where each student is developmentally in the general criteria of educational and career planning? Given the latter, what can research tell us about: identifying and changing developmental deficits related to such criteria; the constellation of behaviors making up effective educational and career planning; or, the sequence of behaviors necessary to achieve maturity on some criterion?

Comparative effects of guidance processes

Researchers have tended to study guidance processes in isolation from other processes or approaches which might yield more cost-effective or powerful results. Generating broad understanding about the comparative effects of guidance means moving away from the rigidities of theoretical dogma and complex abstractions about human behavior to a more systematic evaluation of a variety of techniques applied to a wide range of human problems. Counselors have broadened their use of techniques such as gaming, simulation, behavioral rehearsal, curriculum-based guidance, audio-visual materials, computer-based guidance, behavioral modification, and individual contracts. However, it is not clear which of these can substitute for other approaches in response to different student needs. Research has not led us to a matrix of student concerns and their behavioral counterparts, and a predictive system which helps a counselor elect the technique or process by which a particular type of student need will likely be met. Such comparative research is absolutely essential to counselors behaving eclectically, as applied behavioral scientists, and in systematic response to either broad guidance criteria or individually tailored criteria.

Guidance Intervention by Developmental Age

Besides collecting comparative data about the effectiveness of guidance approaches, we need to know much more about which forms of guidance intervention are most effective at different developmental ages. In general, available research has studied guidance techniques of a particular kind with elementary or middle school or secondary school populations--but not all of them. In so doing, researchers have assumed that each of these student populations is developmentally different. The problem here is that chronological age and developmental age have been confounded. What has not been recognized is that many students in a senior high school population are developmentally at the same stage as many elementary school students in terms of self-knowledge, value clarification, decision-making, and other such behaviors. Therefore, without individualizing the approaches to these students and providing guidance interventions typically thought appropriate only to younger children, it is unlikely that the desired behavioral change will be possible.

A related question is which types of behavior change require guidance interventions beginning in preschool or elementary school and which are amenable to later guidance interventions. It is almost a cliche that much guidance intervention in the secondary school is too little and too late. But under what circumstances is this true, for whom, and what are the alternatives? Neither theories of student development nor theories of guidance intervention address such matters in the comprehensive fashion needed.

Guidance Interventions for Different Populations

Perhaps the matter of whether different forms of guidance intervention are required to serve populations which differ on sexual, racial, or ethnic bases is really an extension of the issue of developmental age. But research is not very helpful in clarifying this issue. Existing research tends to ask: Do black students profit more from having black counselors rather than white? Do female students need female counselors? The existing findings are ambiguous. The weight of evidence seems to indicate that counselor and student need not be of the same race to have an effective relationship. The data about the sex of counselor and student are even less clear-cut. In either situation, there is an implicit question of developmental age and comparative approach. For example, do the developmental experiences of males and females, or of minority and majority persons, differ so comprehensively that the developmental age at which they wrestle with questions of self-identity, career identity, and other related matters is significantly different? If so, how should guidance interventions be programmed to meet such differences?

Cultural and Economic Factors in Guidance

Relatively little is known about the effects of changes in economic or cultural factors upon student behavior. We tend to treat the poor, the middle class, and the rich as homogeneous groups. Perhaps they are, but we have little data about either within-group or between-group variations in these factors. We recognize, in abstract terms, that family and community belief systems, values, and achievement images are important variables in student behavior; but it is not clear under what conditions they operate, for whom, and what the behavioral effects are.

In considering the development of different groups in a society, regardless of how they are defined, we need to identify the factors which limit the ability of such persons to cope with skill mastery, positive attitude development, or achievement motivation. Then, we need to design experiences which can systematically overcome such deficits either in the persons themselves or in the institutions with which they interact.

Measurement Used in Guidance

As suggested above, theories of student development are less comprehensive than is desirable. Often these theories have been derived from studies of middle-class persons, predominantly males, and have not included adequate samples of women or of minority persons. Thus, measurement instruments that rely on existing theory for their conceptual framework are in some instances not sufficiently sensitive to behavior beyond certain restricted groups within the population.

Beyond the problems related to restricted samples, measurement appropriate to developmental guidance brings with it some special research problems. In most assessment, tests and inventories predict the probability of a person's being able to join some criterion group in the future. Such tests are infrequent and widely spaced in time. However, assessment pertinent to developmental guidance will likely monitor a student's change in behavior over a short period of time and in relation to present learning. The format will likely be criterion-based rather than norm-referenced. Research questions will involve how to construct instruments sensitive enough to monitor subtle student change, and will include questions about the ethics of and, indeed, procedures for recording such information.

Curriculum-based Guidance

With counselors increasingly departing from traditional one-to-one approaches to guidance, attention is turning to curriculum-based guidance approaches. This phenomenon is seen particularly in approaches to career education, but it is also reflected in deliberate psychological education, humanistic education, and similar efforts. A number of questions arise from a research standpoint. These questions have to do with the scope and sequence of such curricula, points in academic subject matter at which guidance concepts might be embedded and reinforced, comparative effects of curriculum-based guidance versus other guidance approaches on selected criteria, and ways in which community resources and experiences can be used to help students explore or apply various guidance learnings.

Curriculum-based approaches to guidance are currently getting considerable publicity, but it is not yet clear how they differ from earlier approaches to group guidance which fell into considerable disrepute during the 1960's. Important research topics would be case studies of the factors which influence successful curriculum-based approaches, the degree to which they serve as information delivery systems stimulating students to seek more individual services from counselors, and the comparative effects of such approaches.

Long-term Effects

While more formidable a challenge than other research areas, longitudinal studies need greater emphasis in guidance research. With minor exceptions, it is currently difficult to argue that the effects of guidance, earlier indicated as short-term gains, do persist. That guidance effects must have long-range consequences is not a necessary requirement to validate the importance of guidance if its short-term outcomes are sufficiently important. Nevertheless, without long-range effects, student behavioral changes which are apparent from short-range guidance interventions can be challenged as superficial, fleeting, and not worth the expenditure of time and energy devoted to them.

The Uses of Research in Guidance

The ultimate purposes of doing research in guidance are to use the findings for better understanding of the developmental needs of students and to improve planned guidance responses to these needs. Saying that, however, obscures the complexity of achieving such goals and the contributions which must be made by various governmental agencies and guidance personnel in delivering guidance processes. The next sections speak to the uses of research in relation to these interacting agencies and persons.

Federal or State Education Agencies

In the same manner that a local school district's guidance program should be related to the educational philosophy of that district, Federal or state policies concerning guidance must be related to Federal or state policies regarding education and human services. Therefore, persons responsible for providing guidance leadership at all levels must know Federal and state priorities and how the delivery of various types of guidance programs or processes relate to them. Research in guidance, not speculation or opinion, should be the guide to defining systematic objectives that reflect the importance of guidance in the policies made at the Federal and state levels.

Once Federal or state guidance leaders know the multiple ways that guidance processes can be effective in meeting educational, occupational, and social priorities, they must have available research findings to present to the various forums which translate policy into action. In other words, Federal and state guidance leaders must translate knowledge generalizations about guidance into credible arguments supporting legislation, in-service or staff development, resources and technology, certification, coordination, implementation strategies, and additional research.

Regardless of one's views about the role government should play in education or other human services, the fact is that legislative definitions, target populations identified in legislation or regulation, and the types of guidance processes for which funding is authorized are extremely influential factors in shaping the preparation of counselors and the character of local programs. Therefore, a major goal of Federal and state leaders in guidance must be to help decision-makers avoid constantly rediscovering the wheel, flailing about for short-term solutions to long-term problems, overlooking empirical bases for action, and not planning systematic approaches to the improvement of counselor preparation and guidance interventions. This is a difficult responsibility for these leaders. However, the United States is experiencing a general measurement mania which pervades budgeting and policy decisions at all levels. This climate does not value faith and theory in the absence of outcome data. The guidance profession cannot afford to have policy makers labor under the impression that data do not exist, even if they are less rigorous or comprehensive than we would desire. Guidance research must be perceived as a positive affirmation of the widespread contributions guidance can make to the quality of individual life in the nation.

Counselor Educators

While less dramatic, perhaps, than the role of Federal and state leaders in guidance, counselor educators have a pivotal role in using research in guidance. In the first place, it is from the ranks of counselor education students that future Federal and state leaders in guidance, local directors of guidance, and counselors come. Unless counselor educators imbue their students with a respect for the utility of the research process and the empirical base which is available in guidance, they are not likely to form positive attitudes toward research. Thus, counselor educators must build in research findings and processes as integral components of curricular content and experiences. Dichotomies between research and practice must be shunned. In order to nourish such an environment, counselor educators must themselves be conversant with the research literature and model the use of it in program development, teaching, and supervision.

Research findings can also motivate counselor educators to do their own research. While it would be desirable for counselors in local settings to do more research in guidance than they now do, the fact is that counselor educators are responsible, directly or indirectly, for most of the current guidance research. Therefore, making counselor educators aware of existing knowledge generalizations and prevailing research voids increases the probability that ongoing research will not be trivial or simply unnecessary replication of existing findings.

A third way in which the use of research findings is important to counselor educators relates to their consultative activities. When engaged in consultation, whether in inservice staff development, assistance in program planning, or program evaluation, counselor educators are the major conduits by which research findings can improve local efforts. In these contexts, research findings can lend importance to guidance efforts, give credibility to program planning, suggest alternative ways of responding to local problem areas, and identify assessment approaches to provide evaluative feedback on the guidance program

Local Guidance Directors

The guidance director is likely to be the most significant person in a local setting in regard to whether and how research in guidance is used. This can be demonstrated in several ways: the degree to which the guidance program and its processes evolve from research findings pertinent to local circumstances; the degree to which counselors are encouraged to do research or to evaluate their activities; the ways in which information is collected about student needs for and attitudes toward guidance services; whether research findings are used in presentations about the guidance program to the Board of Education, educational administrators, or the teaching staff; and the way research findings are used in staff development activities for counselors or teachers. Research findings are also helpful in determining what types of audio-visual or other resources might be used to support the guidance effort, how paraprofessionals might contribute to the guidance program, or where model programs are located from which specific types of information could be obtained.

If guidance program planning is an exercise in generating hypotheses about the processes which produce change in students, as suggested earlier in this paper, then such planning is itself an exercise in research and the application of research findings. Most approaches suggest the following steps for guidance program planning:

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1. Conducting needs assessment

   Locally assessed, based on existing research and theory, responsive to Federal or state mandates, or all of these.

2. Stating program goals and behavioral objectives

   Derived from needs assessment and research findings applied to local resources, personnel, and other conditions.

3. Identifying processes and resources specifically related to (accountable for) each program goal and behavioral objective

   Derived from research findings, model programs, theory, and local resources and capabilities.

4. Staff development of counselors, teachers, and other concerned persons

   Content derived from first three processes, pertinent research findings, and local circumstances.

5. Implementation and evaluation of the program

   Evaluation approach derived from research findings, model programs, and local circumstances.

Although this program planning overview is superficial, the point to be made here has two parts. First, each of the steps of the program planning, implementation, and evaluation process can be informed by existing research findings. This does not mean that there are adequate findings dealing with every question or circumstance found in a local area. Instead, it is fair to suggest that there are research findings about each of the steps of the process which can help the local director of guidance and his or her staff decide what questions they should ask or procedures they should employ. The ultimate responsibility for interpreting these findings, applying them to the local setting, or building from them is a local responsibility. While consultants can be helpful, local guidance personnel and their supervisors must incorporate existing research findings into planning from the perspective of local resources, personnel competencies, educational priorities, and student needs. From this procedure comes the second research aspect of program planning: developing and interpreting local data.

Awareness of knowledge generalizations about guidance is highly valuable in program planning. However, taking a research attitude and employing effective information-gathering strategies within the local school district and community are equally important. Needs assessment and its interpretation, program goal-setting, and each of the other steps in planning require that judgments be made on evidence gathered where the program will be implemented. In some cases, this will require descriptive research; in others, inferential. In any case, such locally based research is fundamental to program planning.

Counselors

Uses of research in guidance which are appropriate to the director of guidance are also appropriate to the counselor, particularly when the latter is part of a team participating in program planning. Beyond these uses, however, are others that relate directly to working with students or other clients.

In many ways, the counseling process is itself a research effort with the student serving as the sample. What a counselor does is to generate and test hypotheses about the presenting problems, causes of the student's current dilemma, or other content which emerges in the relationship. The counseling process unfolds, at least partially, from the counselor's testing of the hypotheses generated through summarizing, interpreting, clarifying, and other techniques. The question at issue here is, Where do the counselor's hypotheses come from? Do they derive from research findings about student development and about the etiology of different presenting problems? Hopefully, the answer is yes. The next question is, Where do the counselor's approaches come from? Do they derive from research findings about the effectiveness of selected techniques with different presenting problems? Again, the hope is that the answer is affirmative. Research findings should guide counselor behavior as fully as possible, particularly if the counselor is to be an applied behavioral scientist or to behave as a responsible eclectic in relation to diverse student needs.

In each of the foregoing examples the counselor can be seen as a consumer and applier of research findings. But the counselor also has a role as a generator of research. This does not imply that the school counselor must "get something into print" in order to prove that he or she has done research. Rather, it suggests that there are many questions within the local school that require a research attitude and collection of data regarding them.

Examples of types of research which are important and useful are many. One important research approach is doing a case study of a particular student or students experiencing certain kinds of problems, and then introducing systematic changes in their environment or in their information to determine if these make a difference. Another is systematically interviewing representatives of certain student, parent, or teacher groups, which allows the counselor to explore perceptions and needs in more depth than is possible with a standardized and impersonal questionnaire. Collecting descriptive information on selected questions important to the planning of guidance efforts can be simple but extremely useful: "What proportion of our students hold jobs while attending school? What sort of jobs do they hold? How many hours a week do they work? How do students who work differ from those who do not on achievement, self-understanding, knowledge of occupations?"

Another class of important research for the school counselor may be follow-up studies of graduates of different curricula or of drop-outs. Information about their experiences can be used to provide current student insights about community opportunities and about barriers which they can anticipate and plan to overcome. Such information also can provide feedback useful for guidance program evaluation.

The point is not to be exhaustive about which research findings counselors should use or seek but rather that such information is a vital influence in a counselor's professional maturity. As suggested previously, knowledge generalizations deriving from research in guidance can give the counselor reference points for better understanding of and sensitivity to the perceptions of a particular student. They can help the counselor recognize collective needs for guidance interventions and anticipate corresponding issues.

Research findings can also spur counselor humility. The fact that many questions important to counselors are still unanswered accents the need for counselors to be tentative in their application of findings on some group of people to any specific individual.

Finally, research findings can stimulate the counselor's own probing of questions which have local importance. To recognize that guidance has an empirical base is also to recognize that it is incomplete and in constant need of extension and validation in the local setting. Hopefully, each counselor will see such a goal as personally important.

Summary

This paper has focused on four issues: why a concern for research in guidance, where we are now in developing knowledge generalizations in guidance, musts for research in guidance, and the uses of research in guidance. The general proposition is that guidance has a broad but incomplete empirical base which has important implications for program planning and the professional maturity of guidance practitioners.

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4 the design, development, and evaluation of systematic guidance programs

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THE DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT, AND EVALUATION OF SYSTEMATIC GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

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This chapter examines the past, present, and future perspectives which have led to the need for systematic guidance programs. Rather than presenting a how-to guide, the author has concentrated on dispelling some of the myths that surround and tend to discourage the systematic approach. In the past guidance was viewed as a series of services which could not be properly described or measured. Current moves toward self-awareness and accountability have fostered many techniques for systematic evaluation. The future goal--comprehensive guidance programs--is analyzed in terms of four components: planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating. The chapter ends with recommendations for counselors, guidance directors and supervisors, and educators of guidance personnel to help move the profession toward full implementation of a systematic approach to guidance.

Sucess without a successor is failure. Guidance needs successes--and successors; yet few counselors and guidance directors plan, evaluate, and document their programs in a way that permits replication. Many counselors function as autonomous professionals without roadmap or travel diary. Discovering what they do that makes them successful counselors is difficult. Intuitive beliefs, rather than incontrovertible evidence, are offered as rationale.

A review of the history of guidance in the United States reveals marked changes in the thrusts of guidance programs from one period to another, and helps explain some of the current confusion surrounding the roles and functions of guidance personnel. From the early 1900's into the 1920's, guidance was concerned mainly with the transition from school to work. Then, as guidance theory and practice became more clinically oriented, the emphasis shifted to counseling for personal adjustment. Now we are in a new era in which the focus is on comprehensive guidance programs "organized systematically around person-centered outcomes" (Gysbers, 1978).

Because institutional changes are nearly always responses to perceived needs, it may help to review the past, present, and future perspectives that have caused us to focus on the need for systematic planning and organization of guidance programs.

Perspectives: Past

In the cultural context of the past, schools were acculturation centers where the young were taught to understand, and to preserve, the institutional status quo. Whereas teacher roles were defined by their curricula, roles of guidance personnel were defined by administrative expediency. Since no guidance content had been identified and counselor qualifications were not described in terms of unique competencies, the counselor was vulnerable both to criticism and to assignment to inappropriate tasks. Guidance was seen as assisting students in their personal adjustment; guidance programs were for the most part limited to secondary schools. School organization was rigid and departmentalized; so guidance personnel, even though they had no curriculum, formed departments, sealing themselves off from other staff members. Evaluation of guidance programs was generally limited to head counts (how many students were seen) and to laundry lists (what activities had been completed, e.g., student interviews, parent contacts, letters of recommendation, class scheduling). Guidance was perceived as a service, or rather a series of services, rather than a program. It could not be described, so it could not be measured. Staff member responsibility was judged in terms of performing tasks, not in terms of how students were changed as the result of the performance of those tasks.

Perspectives: Present

We are still reeling under the backlash from the accountability movement. Unfortunately, accountability arrived in many states not as a function of professionals' desire to know the effects of their efforts, but as a legislative mandate. It was a new world and a new concept to most guidance specialists, and the fact that accountability was associated with PPBES (Planning, Programming, Budgeting and Evaluating Systems) caused many to reject it as being business-oriented and inappropriate. The fact that the cultural context has become fluid to a point that the status quo is change, however, makes accountability imperative.

Greatly expanded citizen awareness has caused everyone to get into the education act. No longer do the schools belong to the educators. Roles are defined not by administrators, but by law, community, parents, teachers, and students. "Needs assessments" have become popular, and all those with investment in the education enterprise are having their say about what students need. Classroom teachers' responsibilities are well defined by subjects they teach; student needs that can't be classified by subject frequently become the responsibility of the guidance staff. Expectations for guidance personnel have therefore increased exponentially.

In the meantime, largely because of the self-awareness movement, many new techniques have been developed and popularized; and most counselors have expanded their competencies to include at least some of these techniques. Without the guidelines provided by a systematic program, these competencies often are used in isolation. Although the guidance specialist may conduct some evaluation to determine whether the particular technique is effective, such evidence is spotty and has little to do with consistent student development.

As community and/or parent advisory committees have exercised their right to recommend improvements in the schools, school organization has become less structured and more oriented toward the individual. The IEP (Individual Education Plan) which effectively guides the development of handicapped students is now being viewed as an appropriate model for all students. Since the IEP is based on discovering where the student is in his/her learning, and what are appropriate next-step behaviors, a developmental approach is assumed.

The developmental approach has been followed by most good teachers, particularly at the elementary level, but it has received little attention among guidance personnel. The biggest boost toward a developmental guidance approach has been the dramatic increase in assignment of counselors to the elementary level where child development is a central issue.

Perspectives: Future

Futurists remind us that since we cannot predict local, national, or world events that will have impact on the future, we must consider many alternative possible futures. Faced with the problem of preparing young people for an unknown future, we could decide to offer no direction at all. However, there are some things we do know about the future. There will continue to be breakthroughs in knowledge in all areas, particularly in the biological and space sciences. The pace of change will accelerate and then probably level off as change exceeds our human ability to keep up with it. Career options will multiply while the future becomes more uncertain. Nothing will be more certain than uncertainty, nothing more permanent than impermanence.

If we continue in our responsive/reactive role, we will contribute to the decline of the species. The changed and changing context--a dynamic, living, growing context--demands a dynamic, systematic approach with self-correcting mechanisms built in. The future will see guidance roles constantly redefined by changing, emerging individual and community needs. Counselor competencies will continue to be expanded and refined, with the employment of ever more efficient and effective strategies. Many of these strategies will be collaborative, with guidance personnel teaming with teachers, parents, and paraprofessionals to meet shared objectives. The increasingly verbal community will insist that guidance is for all students, regardless of age, grade, or developmental level. School organization will be flexible, with individual educational plans, continuous progress, open entry/open exit, and teaming among staff members. No longer passive recipients of services they are assumed to need, students will be participants in their own evolution, helping to define needs, methods, and outcomes. Evaluation will be seen as a management tool, with emphasis on program improvement. Effectiveness of programs will be judged in terms of students' mastery of developmental tasks. A dynamic, systematic guidance program will become the core of the school.

Developing Systematic Guidance Programs

The phrase "systematic program" is used rather than "guidance system" to emphasize the dynamic nature of the concept. Although both terms imply a self-correcting approach that illuminates strong and weak linkages among components, there appears to be less resistance to the term systematic. The results are the same. Systematic guidance programs are developed, not by junking current programs and starting over, but by organizing efforts around realistic student outcomes. Such programs result more from changes in attitudes and expectations than from changes in activities.

It is unfortunate that some of us are called teachers, some counselors, some administrators; labels impede change. The first step in changing attitudes and expectations is to forget the labels, and to think of the generic term "educator" for each and all of us; this facilitates the collaboration needed to make a program work. Another important step is to focus on how the student is changed by our intervention, rather than on the nature of the intervention. In a review of research findings concerning counselor use of time, Hopper and Schroeder (1974) found that most high school counselors are primarily concerned with information-giving. A shift in emphasis can remove counselors from that tedium and free us to use our professional competencies to facilitate student development. Pine (1975a) identified and analyzed the range and scope of contemporary criticisms of counselors; two of the areas of criticism were professional identity and role, and accountability. Assuming an attitude of accountability will inhibit criticism in both areas.

Components of a Systematic Guidance Program

A guidance program is systematic if its components are interrelated and interdependent with respect to some common objectives. Each part of the program is linked to one or more other parts, with all parts forming a cohesive whole. A systematic guidance program contains four components: planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating.

Planning. This component involves determining the knowledge, skills, and attitudes students need to acquire; the resources available; the desired outcomes at each level; and the evaluation needs. It is not the intent of this publication to provide a recipe for constructing a guidance system. Many such guides exist (College E[illegible]ance Examination Board, 1972; Jones, 1970; Kaplan, 1974; Mease and [illegible]son, 1973; Mesa Public Schools, 1974; Richins, 1976; Texas Education Agency, 1973; and Woolley, 1973). Rather, this section is intended to remove some of the myths that constrain guidance personnel from developing and implementing systematic programs.

Planning, then, is a matter of providing an opportunity for students, teachers, parents, and community members to help determine students' counseling needs, and then planning with teachers and administrators to deliver on those needs. We derive possible needs from an existing model (which we modify to fit our situation); we ask all interested groups to identify priority needs; we determine the extent to which the present program is meeting those needs; we assess the available resources for meeting the needs; we decide which needs can be met at which levels; and we plan to evaluate the effectiveness of our efforts. The one element that makes these tasks part of a systematic approach is that they are all interrelated; relationships can be traced in both directions.

This approach is in marked contrast to the crisis orientation of "cubicle counseling," wherein the counselor's thrust is determined moment-by-moment as each new problem or need presents itself. It requires an attitude that says, in effect, "I am going to exercise some control over what I do, in order to provide the best services for the most students, rather than providing services to a few students on demand."

Structuring. In this component decisions are made as to who will do what for which students when. The delivery system should not be imposed, but jointly decided upon. Falik (1971) found that a team effort at the elementary level (learning specialist, administrator, and counselor) had much greater impact on the school and on the functioning of the individual specialist than their individual work could have had. So in structuring our program we look at each staff member in terms of competencies rather than in terms of labels, and we determine which staff members can best collaborate to meet each objective identified during the planning stage. Berman and McLaughlin (1975), in a comparative study of successful and unsuccessful Federally supported programs, found that one of the variables that characterized successful programs was the involvement at the planning and structuring stages of all those who would be implementing any part of the program.

Many teachers already include some counseling activities in their instruction and welcome extended opportunities to motivate their students further by participating in structured counseling activities. Again, the attitudes of guidance personnel serve as catalysts to achieving the collaboration by which we can extend and enhance our influence. As long as we have proprietary attitudes toward "our" domain, we will find ourselves increasingly frustrated as the pressure of expanding expectations pushes us farther and farther away from attainment of even basic student outcomes. In a systematic guidance program the guidance staff interprets the needs and interests of the students to the teaching staff; teams with teachers in presenting activities designed to help students attain prestated objectives; serves as resident expert in the staff development of teachers, e.g., training in classroom management techniques, coping skills, interaction analysis, group skills, communication skills; and assists in the evaluation of student progress. The teacher, already the primary helper of the student, is capacitated to achieve a broader array of objectives, thereby increasing student motivation and teacher satisfaction.

At the structuring stage decisions are made concerning the extent and limitations of the program. No longer is the guidance staff expected continuously to absorb more responsibilities. Precise statement of which activities are to be performed by which staff members to produce which outcomes for which students makes it possible to determine the amount of effort and time required for each objective. It becomes evident that if the activities are implemented as planned, a limited number of activities will be possible. At this point decisions are made about which of the current and new activities will contribute most to priority objectives, and which will need to be dropped or delayed until additional resources become available. This is the time to negotiate with the administrator for a reasonable work assignment. There will have to be trade-offs, and some of these trade-offs may not please us. For instance, if we enjoy being an information-giver and it is decided that a paraprofessional has the competence to fill that role, we may have to trade that activity for one we like less but that contributes more to priority student outcomes.

Implementing. The next component of a systematic approach to guidance is implementing the program. There is no point in planning or structuring a program unless the total staff is committed to implementing the program as planned. At this stage the guidance specialist becomes the manager and the mediator of the program, orchestrating efforts, facilitating communication, and assisting with program modifications as needed. The program manager's attitude must include a willingness to team with other staff members, and to share the credit for successes. It requires focusing on results in terms of student outcomes, and on continuous assessment of the effectiveness of the program so that mid-course corrections can be made as needed. The principal payoff is in terms of the excitement generated by mounting evidence that our efforts as counselors do make a difference to students.

Since the planning and structuring stages permit analysis of time required for attainment of each objective, our time in this stage is concentrated on student outcomes-based activities, and many of the quasi-administrative and clerical tasks of the past will have been abandoned. The systematic nature of the guidance program will be clearly evident as each activity is linked to an outcome for a specific group of students, each outcome is linked to an identified need, and each need is part of a developmental model which, when completely addressed, represents total development for each student.

Evaluating. The fourth and final component of a systematic guidance program is evaluation. Since the intent of this publication is to remove some of the myths that discourage guidance personnel from attempting a systematic approach, this section will be relatively longer than the sections on the first three components. This is because more myths surround evaluation than surround the other three components combined. Many see evaluation as a threat; yet a good evaluation is simply a good management system, providing information for making decisions, and focusing on program effectiveness rather than on counselor or student.

A good evaluation system has a self-correcting mechanism. Almost never is a product or procedure, be it in education or in any other complex field, completely satisfactory the first time it is created and installed. It must be expected that many modifications will be required before the program reaches its intended performance level. A systematic guidance program contains within its planned structure a set of procedures for change to improve effectiveness. Self-correcting systems have the following characteristics: (1) an established and operationally defined set of objectives, (2) specific criteria by which to evaluate any discrepancy between the objectives and the current performance of the program, and (3) a set of decision rules for making mid-course changes in the program to minimize the discrepancy. The evaluation-revision cycle in the self-correcting mechanism is operative at all stages of the program--in marked contrast to the myth that evaluation imposes rigid specifications from which one may not deviate. The purpose of evaluation is not to prove, but to improve. We cannot afford to wait a full year for evaluation results only to find that a program is not working; we must sample how it is working all along the way, and must plan in-course corrections to make sure we are achieving the desired outcomes.

The principal task of evaluation is the design and installation of a monitoring system. This is a stragegy for assessing both the process and the learning so that inferences can be drawn about programmatic components. It is a matter of collecting and using only the information that is needed for decisions. Instead of attempting to gather all possible information, we need to determine first which decision makers need what information to answer what questions; answers to questions then furnish data for decisions. As with the other components, we see that evaluation requires a certain kind of attitude: not resistance to procedures perceived as being esoteric and useless, but excitement about the opportunity to make decisions based on hard evidence rather than solely on intuition. The fact that a well-planned and well-executed evaluation makes it possible to pinpoint the element responsible for a particular success or breakdown in a program underlines the fact that it is objective and therefore nonthreatening.

Evaluation studies need not be exhaustive, scientifically oriented, statistically embellished. On the other hand, they should be something more than "warm puppy studies." Warm puppy studies focus on how happy everyone is with the program, how much they like it. Such studies, although helpful for ego-deficient program leaders, do little to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the program, or to suggest direction for change in order to enhance the likelihood of effectiveness.

Proper evaluation provides nondistorted information requested and required by decision makers. Here again we are reminded of the importance of the systematic approach to guidance programs. The evaluation focuses on attainment of student outcomes and on implementation of the processes designed to produce those outcomes; the implementation relates to the outcomes, the outcomes to the needs, the needs to the content model from which the needs were derived. At every step of the program, and through every dimension of the program, these linkages are apparent. The evaluation is continuous, and serves as the bonding agent between and among the program elements.

Reflection on a present program can help us understand this concept. Think of a recent counseling activity: Was it planned? What student outcomes was it expected to produce? Did these student outcomes emerge from an identification of needs? How did the activity and its outcomes relate to other activities and outcomes? Was there a way of assessing whether the outcomes were achieved? In a systematic program, relationships are obvious and results are documented. Program activities that are not effective are changed or dropped, and all-out efforts are concentrated on using professional skills to help students acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes conducive to growth and production.

Although evaluation designs and procedures are not presented here, there are many references from which to choose. Among these are O'Hare and Lasser's (1971) process guide for evaluating pupil personnel programs; Twiford and Wellman's (1959) early and insightful approach to evaluations; O'Hare's (1969-70) cogent guidelines; Wellman and Gysbers' (1971) description of a systematic approach to statewide evaluation of career guidance, counseling, and placement; Galant and Moncrieff's (1974) annotated bibliography on accountability in guidance; Leviton's (1977) simple but effective approach for evaluating a school guidance program; Young and Schuh's (1975) guide to evaluating career education; Wellman and Moore's (1975) handbook for program development and evaluation; and New Educational Directions' (1977) report of the problems encountered in evaluation of career education programs, with suggestions for avoiding these problems.

Promoting the need for evaluation, Pine (1975b) states that the experimental, descriptive, and case study approaches that have characterized guidance evaluation do not help to improve programs. O'Connor and Wigtil (1975) present evidence that evaluation does result in program improvement. Studying 20 Ohio schools that had completed an evaluation the previous year, they found that of 357 recommendations made as a result of the evaluations, nearly one-third were fully implemented within one year and another one-third were in process of implementation.

Models as Organizers

By now most of us are aware of the need--indeed, the imperatives--for systematic guidance programs. Some of us already are in the process of systematizing our programs. Whether we are or are not, we will want to examine the content model on which our program is or should be based. With the rapid change we are all experiencing, and with the need to keep our guidance programs dynamic, it is imperative that we annually re-evaluate our model for relevance and completeness.

Most models address three components (though they may be labeled differently): self-knowledge, knowledge of the world of work, and planning and decision making. Many states have produced models, and one of the first to do so was California (Cunha et al., 1972). Although the title refers to career development, the model is applicable to all guidance programs. It is an outgrowth of the Wellman (1967) taxonomy of guidance objectives. The Wellman and Moore (1975) handbook for program development and evaluation also provides a model. Lasser (1975) outlines steps in an outcomes-based counseling cycle, with insight as well as behavioral techniques for promoting counseling goals. Jacobson and Mitchell (1975) produced a detailed master plan for guidance, with goals, objectives, strategies, competency analysis, and criterion measures. Between July 1, 1971, and December 31, 1974, the United States Office of Education sponsored a project to assist each state, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico to develop preliminary state-tailored, home/school/community models/guides for developing and implementing improved and extended career guidance, counseling, and placement programs in local school districts (Gysbers, 1975). Models and guides developed under this project are available in many states.

Arguing for systematic guidance programs based on content models, the Arkansas State Department of Education (1976) noted that school- and community-based guidance, counseling, placement, and follow-up programs designed to meet the career planning needs of each student resulted in better ordering of priority needs, and in focusing on procedures for using employment information, exploring alternative work experiences, and providing placement in next-step services for all students. This is just one example of the impact of a systematic approach.

Approaches That Work

As indicated earlier, the most important and productive step to take in installing a systematic guidance program is to work on attitudinal changes--our own as well as those of staff, students, and parents. It is imperative that all who will be affected by the new approach understand and embrace the concept and be committed to making it work. We might start with a shift from focus on activity to focus on student outcome. Each time we perform an activity, whether it is a one-to-one conference with a student or an administrative-type activity, we should ask ourselves these questions: Who will benefit from this activity? How will s/he be different? Is that difference important? Are we the ones most competent to help him/her achieve that difference? How will we know it was achieved? With this approach we soon will find ourselves dropping nonproductive activities and having more time for those activities that result in student learning.

Changing attitudes of others is difficult, though we will find that our own modeling of the changed attitude and changed emphasis will be a powerful motivator. A little humility helps here--verbal recognition of the fact that we can't do it alone, that we need to collaborate with others to accomplish the most possible for and with our students. Recognition of the contributions teachers now make to student growth in guidance areas forms a bridge to their further involvement. Helping students articulate their needs and set priorities for outcomes makes them participants in their own evolution, partners in rather than passive recipients of our counsel.

An excellent example of approaches that work is that followed by counselors at Valhalla High School in the Grossmont (California) Union High School District. A burgeoning enrollment and a deteriorating Teacher-Advisory Program found the counselors overwhelmed. They were astute enough to realize that their effectiveness was being undermined by the continuing escalation of expectations for their services. On their own time (and many tedious hours were involved) they performed a task analysis of all areas for which they were held responsible. They computed actual time spent on each task, and time that should be spent in order to perform each task adequately as well as to evalaute its effectiveness. They found that they were averaging more than 50 percent more hours on the job than their contracts required, but less than 75 percent of the time required to do all tasks well. They documented their findings meticulously and presented them to the faculty senate for action. The senate, presented with information for decisions instead of the usual complaints and requests for more staff, commended the group and helped to set priorities for the counselors' efforts, as well as to revitalize the Teacher-Advisory Program to make it responsible for some of the priority student outcomes. This is but one example of the value of planning and evaluating guidance programs.

Moving Toward a Systematic Guidance Program

If we are to "get our act together," we must all accept responsibility for moving from activity-oriented to student outcome-oriented systematic guidance programs. Not only counselors and other guidance-related workers, but guidance directors, guidance supervisors, and guidance personnel educators must participate in this movement. Approaches that work, appropriate for each of these groups, are presented here as catalysts; many more will suggest themselves as we pursue the transition to systematic guidance programs.

Counselors

Many counselors have demonstrated singular effectiveness in moving toward systematic guidance programs. Based on these demonstrations, the following actions are suggested:

1. Conduct an assessment of student outcomes most important to students, parents, staff, and community.

2. For each activity of every day, determine who will benefit from the activity, and how the student(s) will be different because of the activity. In other words, determine what should be the student outcome.

3. Recognizing the limitations imposed by high student-counselor ratios and limited funds, concentrate on priority needs of students (Phipps, 1975).

4. Recognizing that change to a systematic program must be accomplished incrementally, select one or two areas in which to initiate change immediately. In these areas complete the four components of a systematic guidance program: planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating.

5. Perform an honest, objective self-appraisal. Penn-Harris-Madison School Corporation (1973) has developed a performance-based self-appraisal program designed to help all guidance personnel to evaluate all areas of their professional performance on an annual basis. Dunlop

(1971) suggests three methods by which school counselors might evaluate their own competence as well as that of colleagues. He believes that practicing counselors should be their own evaluators.

6. Upgrade professional competencies, not only refining current competencies, but acquiring new competencies as needed. Perez and Taylor (1974) describe a social-learning-systems approach to counselor improvement. This approach integrates both the counseling process and the counseling outcome factors into a continuous system of input, process, outcome, and feedback geared toward behavior change. Santoro (1969) describes a method for improving counselor-client interview behavior. This interactive training schema is designed to provide formalized feedback on the types of interactions (and their efficacy) between counselor and client.

Guidance Directors

Guidance directors serve as models and mentors, designers and leaders, facilitators and advocates. To move toward systematic guidance programs, guidance directors might consider some of the following approaches.

1. Set up competency-based guidelines for selection of counselors. Salim (1971) presents a coordinated process for selection of school counselors. An assessment instrument is used to assess strengths and limitations of counselor candidates, and the resulting counselor profiles are then evaluated in light of district needs. The American Personnel and

Guidance Association (1968) has also published a number of approaches for selecting counselors on both pre-service and in-service levels providing guidelines for evaluating counselor competence. Patterson (1967) found that most studies focus on current characteristics, rather than desirable characteristics, of counselors, and suggests new criteria for judging effectiveness.

2. Involve students, staff, and parents in evaluating the effectiveness of guidance programs.

3. Develop a set of program objectives, and assign counselors to the tasks of achieving specific objectives.

4. Encourage counselor self-evaluation, and provide counselors with models and materials for such evaluation.

5. Assign counselors to areas of their competence, and encourage them to develop new competencies.

6. Encourage counselors to analyze their activities in terms of time involved and student outcomes, and assist them in making decisions as to which activities should be dropped, which modified, which enhanced. Trade-offs should be reasonable.

Guidance Supervisors

The term Guidance Supervisor is used to identify persons with varying degrees of responsibility at district, county, and state levels. Some demonstrated practices by which guidance supervisors can help facilitate movement toward systematic guidance programs are presented here.

1. Define the guidance domain and develop and disseminate systematic guidance program models.

2. Provide guidelines for staff development needed for implementation of systematic guidance programs.

3. Provide staff development workshops and technical assistance for guidance administrators.

4. Develop master plans for guidance at each level (district, county, state).

Educators of Guidance Personnel

Although more communication exists now than in the past among counselors, guidance directors, guidance supervisors, and educators of guidance personnel, we still have a long way to go in terms of achieving a fit between the training a counselor receives, the expectations of the administrator for the counselor, and the reality of the job. More than any other, this area needs concentrated effort if we are to move toward systematic guidance programs in schools. Staffs of many training institutions have implemented one or more of the following practices which are designed to move us toward systematic guidance programs.

1. Analyze current counselor training programs in terms of competencies counselors are expected to possess.

2. Set up a competency-based training program. Competency attainment is assessed by applying specific success criteria to each counselor-trainee's performance of representative demonstration tasks in each area

of competence. Hogan and Markwardt (1969) conducted a study based on the guidelines developed by the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision. Their findings pointed out the direction colleges and universities must take if they are to meet the needs of today's schools. One of the areas of study was the congruence of the curriculum with on-the-job expectations; another was the importance of a reality-oriented practicum. Miller and Shields (1971) showed that an intensive prepracticum training program can improve significantly the interview behavior of trainees.

3. Set up a competency-based system for evaluating counselors in training. Gruen and Ball (1974) call for a re-evaluation of the evaluation procedures of counselors in training. Specifically, they advocate making evaluation educational rather than judgmental. Within the context of programmatic research and an empirical systems approach, Pepeyne (1970) developed and evaluated an interactive computer system for use on counselor education and assessment. One of the features of this system that holds promise for evaluation of counselors in training is the program subsystem called Sequential Automated Monitoring of Counselor Repertoire Development. The concept is worth exploring.

4. Publish in books and professional journals information about emerging needs and trends, together with models for meeting these needs. Press releases and substantive stories distributed to the public through mass media will also help diffuse knowledge about and rationale for systematic approaches to guidance programs.

The fact that so many counselors, guidance directors, guidance supervisors, and educators of guidance personnel are implementing these and other activities is evidence of our recognition of the need for systematic guidance programs. Until recently we lacked direction, however, and our efforts have been aimed toward specific program components, rather than toward providing linkage systems between and among components. The desire to change is present in all of us; hopefully, this publication can help to provide the needed direction for change.

Imperatives for Change

We would do well to implement all the approaches and activities briefly described in the previous section. These would move us toward systematic guidance programs. If we are to meet the needs of our students in a future such as that outlined in the first section of this chapter, however, the following statements should be considered to be universal imperatives.

Imperatives for Counselors

Counselors must:

1. Perform an honest, objective analysis of their attitudes and competencies.

2. Use this analysis as a basis for personal and professional development activities, e.g., seminars, workshops, professional conferences, course work, professional reading.

3. Perform an honest, objective analysis of the effectiveness of current program components.

4. Use this analysis as a basis for working with administrators to decide which activities to drop and which to modify in order to make the program more effective.

5. Shift the focus of their efforts from activities to outcomes.

6. Evaluate their activities in terms of student outcomes.

7. Develop new competencies needed for implementing a systematic approach to guidance.

Imperatives for Guidance Directors

Guidance directors must:

1. Assume leadership in defining the guidance domain, and in planning the total systematic guidance program, to be implemented on a preplanned, incremental basis until the total program is systematized.

2. Provide staff development experiences that will teach the competencies needed for effective implementation of specific program components.

3. Assist counselors to analyze current activities in terms of time and of student outcomes, and facilitate their selection of activities to drop, modify, or improve.

4. Apply relevant criteria to the evaluation of counselors, focusing on student outcomes rather than on tallies of activities.

Imperatives for Guidance Supervisors

Guidance supervisors must:

1. Provide leadership in developing guidelines for competency-based selection of counselors.

2. Provide leadership in making state credential requirements compatible with the movement toward systematic guidance programs.

3. Provide leadership leading to enactment of effective licensure laws affecting guidance personnel.

Imperatives for Educators of Guidance Personnel

Educators of guidance personnel must:

1. Know the local schools. Know their philosophies, needs, staffs, and programs, as well as community characteristics.

2. Sit down with representatives of the local schools and discuss their perceptions of graduates' readiness to perform the tasks required.

3. Set up competency-based training programs designed to be congruent with the competencies needed in the schools.

4. Select counselor trainees according to criteria so that prospective trainees will know what is expected of them.

5. Develop and implement effective procedures for assessing trainees' attainment of competencies. Survey the literature for clues as to effective means of judging their assessment procedures. Miller (1972), for instance, studied elementary school counselors on the job, and suggests that the results of such a study provide useful feedback for counselor

educators who prepare graduate students to perform specific guidance functions in elementary schools.

6. Use their expertise and influence to shape counselor certification requirements and licensure laws. This responsibility should not be taken lightly. In a study of certification practices and procedures throughout the United States and Canada, Dragan (1971) found that certification procedures were largely limiting, unimaginative, academically oriented, bound by fixed course hours, and too minimal. Most certification requirements guaranteed exposure to courses, not competence.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association recently has assumed leadership in counselor certification. The work of this APGA Committee should be followed with interest. In the meantime, each of us concerned with counseling needs to examine the certification requirements in our state, determine the degree to which they address competencies needed for systematic guidance programs, and give professional support to certification requirements that include competence in planning, structuring, implementing, and evaluating systematic, comprehensive guidance programs.

7. In collaboration with state departments of education, county education offices, and professional organizations, assist in the retraining and updating of practicing counselors as new competencies are required for implementation of dynamic systematic guidance programs. Counselor trainers are in the best position to meet staff development needs of practicing counselors, and they can mobilize many resources to assist them in their efforts.

These, of course, are the basic imperatives. It is difficult, and perhaps misleading, to suggest a list of "to-do's." Each guidance professional must study the components and steps of a comprehensive guidance system and determine his/her role in the transition which must take place if guidance is to provide needed leadership in the schools of even the immediate future. Cubicle counseling, as a response to the expressed needs of students who request such services, is no longer viable. We must get to the heart of the system and provide the kind of leadership which is wanted, needed, and an imperative for our profession. Our services must be central to the whole educational system as we collaborate with teachers and other staff members to study and interpret the experiences and needs of students, and assist in planning for their development.

Summary

Recognizing the need to expend our limited guidance resources on priority needs of students, and to evaluate the effectiveness of our efforts in terms of student outcomes related to those needs, this chapter has addressed four related areas: (1) developments (past, present and future) leading to the need for systematic planning and organization of guidance programs; (2) components of systematic guidance programs; (3) models and approaches that work; and (4) imperatives for counselors, guidance directors, guidance supervisors, and educators of guidance personnel if we are to achieve systematic planning and organization of guidance programs in our schools.

Among the imperatives are openness to change, focus on outcome instead of activity, establishment of priority needs, collaboration among school personnel, incremental implementation of a systematic approach, preservice and inservice programs designed to help guidance workers gain the competencies necessary for implementation of systematic guidance programs.

Sources of further information for pursuing these imperatives are provided. Readers are encouraged to internalize the information and the challenge presented here, and to determine personal next steps toward implementation of systematic career guidance programs in their own professional settings.

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5 guidance and counseling today and tomorrow: our nation's rural and small schools

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GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING TODAY AND TOMORROW:
OUR NATION'S RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOLS

Harry N. Drier and James Altschuld

This chapter begins by noting the difficulties of characterizing rural America. The author points out that the rural community, often taken to be a homogeneous group, is in fact a diverse group of people with widely differing social and economic characteristics. A number of the assets of rural schools, as well as their limitations, are discussed. The need for systematic career development assistance is highlighted, and some of the issues which need to be considered in order to reach this goal are enumerated. Among them are community participation, staffing, placement, and student assessment. The author's recommendations for action are organized in terms of agencies or groups which can impact upon rural career guidance needs.

Rurality--Its Strengths and Limitations

Unique characteristics

What are the rural community and the rural school really like? A simple straightforward question that seems as if it could be answered readily. Perhaps! The answer, however, is evasive and perplexing. Rural America is in reality a set of Rural Americas--some farm, some nonfarm; some totally white, some of mixed ethnic groups; some prosperous, some poor; some progressive, some backward; some stagnant, some in a state of flux. Rural America is not easy to characterize; and as our nation grows and changes, it will become even more difficult to identify and monitor the pulsebeats, the perceptions, and the perspectives of the construct called rurality. It is only possible to obtain a flickering glimpse of that construct at but one point or moment in time.

Generally, then, what are the rural community and school really like? McCarthy (1977) in a recent article noted that:

- One-half of the nation's poor are rural people, though they are only one-third of the total population.
- For every one substandard housing unit in a metropolitan area, two can be found in rural areas.
- Only 12% of the nation's doctors are in rural areas, while half of all rural citizens live in areas officially designated as medically under-served.
- 41% of the nation's elderly are rural residents.
- 5.3% of rural schoolage children are not enrolled in school, a nonenrollment rate twice that for urban children.

McCarthy goes on to point out that the above figures are not the result of some overnight occurrence but represent the outcome of a continuous process over decades. Forces such as technological change, industrialization, and the resultant out-migration of population have worked an inexorable, relentless press upon the rural community.

Jackson (1977), in a discussion of the American farmer, indicates that technological improvements have led to 37% of all farms selling approximately 90% of the agricultural output of the country. Obviously this trend can be debated/interpreted from a variety of viewpoints. What is important is that this trend represents a change of major proportions, is caused by tremendous technological progress, and has had an inalterable impact on Rural America.

The problems of Rural America can be seen as both generic and specific. Clarenbach (1977) suggests that the rural community consists of definable subgroups such as farm, rural black, migrant, and Appalachian. These subgroups have overlapping as well as unique needs. Overlapping needs result from such factors as physical isolation, poverty, or low income. Specialized needs might include overcoming the handicap of learning English as a second language, or the truly unique educational needs of rural women as compared with those of rural men. Education delivery costs for women who live in sparsely settled ares are high in comparison to rural income levels, and rural women are tied to the home in their roles as wives and mothers by the prevailing attitudes of the rural community.

The rural school district (which can be characterized as having a secondary school population of less than 500 students who generally come from communities of 2,500 or less located 25 miles from cities of 25,000) reflects the set of conditions that impact upon the rural community.[1] The cost of education delivery is high and, even with the current trend toward consolidation, is difficult to reduce significantly. Transportation expenses partially offset economies of scale (Sher and Tompkins, 1977). Physical and human resources are also seriously limited within the rural school. For example, the ability of rural schools to compete for state and Federal funds stands small chance against the expertise of the research, evaluation, curriculum, guidance, and program development staffs maintained by many larger school systems. The substitute for full scale program development in such settings is most often haphazard implementation of scattered activities according to the attitudes, perceptions, and good intentions of individual teachers, counselors, and administrators.

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[1] In research presently being conducted at The National Center for Research in Vocational Education of The Ohio State University approximately 7,600 schools have been identified as being in the rural category.

The need for rural students to have experiences relating to overall career development is particularly acute. Isolation, insufficient school and community resources, and communication and transportation difficulties contribute greatly to this need. In fields such as art, design, physical science, and medical science, individuals who grow and mature in the rural environment are at a potential disadvantage with their city peers. Opportunities for career exploration and tryout and further education of all types are lesser in the rural setting. Actual or possible exposure to a broad base of career role models may simply not be feasible. Individuals do not have enough appropriate situations in which to compare continually and tentatively their own abilities, aptitudes, aspirations, and interests with those of role models. This is unfortunate, because it is most likely that an individual settles upon career and life role choices as a result of this continuous testing, matching, and exploring process (Jordaan, 1963). The material resources of the rural school that pertain to specialized interests and concerns of rural students may also be seriously limited.

Is it all gloom and doom, then, for the rural student? Has the rural school no chance of providing the career development experiences and the specialized career guidance that rural students can benefit from and need? Does the only hope lie in consolidation into ever larger education entities? Can the limitations, the disadvantages be overcome? Can they in some manner or fashion be converted from liabilities into assets?

First, the picture is not all dark and dreary. Largeness, in and of itself, is not a guarantee that the career development needs of students will be attended to. Indeed, many large and/or urban schools have problems similar to those of the rural school in this area. The difference is only that more resources are immediately available to the larger school. Size is thus a factor, but it is heavily outweighed by a sincere commitment to providing students with a variety of career development experiences.

Second, the rural setting is one of both stability and change. This paradox is exemplified by the demand for rural goods (mining products, produce, grains, livestock) which has been steady or increasing, while the technology associated with rural "industries" has changed by quantum leaps and exponential factors. Some evidence suggests that the rural community has, in general, a stable and stronger family life, i.e., a lesser rate of divorce and a higher rate of church membership as compared with more urbanized areas. Individuals in rural areas may experience less anomie and "rootlessness" than their urban counterparts (Drier, et al., 1976). The family, and, as will be noted later, the rural community as an extension of the family, can be major positive factors in programs designed to guide students in making career-related decisions.

Third, the smallness of the rural school may indeed be one of its strengths for planning, initiating, and fully implementing career development programs. Barker and Gump (1964) in a classic research study found that students in rural or small schools have to take a more active, participatory role in school activities--especially afterschool activities--if the activities are to be successful. For the rural school to field a football team and/or a full band requires a high rate of student participation. Conversely, in a large school it may be easier for a student to remain isolated and to drift off into the periphery. Certainly then, the limitation of size easily can be converted into an asset.

Fourth, smallness again can be seen as a potential asset when it comes to organizing even scarce and widely spread-out community resources relating to career development programs. While there are not as many businesses, community organizations, or governmental agencies to call upon, those that are present can be effectively organized and utilized. The process of organization can be carried out in a relatively short period of time and without great expenditure of effort and money. The wealth of resources in larger settings is clearly superior to that of rural communities.

But organizing, coordinating, and taking full advantage of such resources can be a more complex and difficult undertaking for the urban school.

Fifth, and by far most important, is the open and honest recognition that existing problems must be attended to if the rural school is to remain a viable educational institution. It is only when a problem--a need--is recognized that concerned educators and citizens can begin to analyze its parameters and begin work on issues affecting the rural community. What was not stated, what was purposefully neglected, was the title of McCarthy's fine article, "Rural America and its Problems Enjoying a Reawakened Interest." This reawakened interest is illustrated by such factors as the following:

- New Federal legislation designed to aid rural communities in such areas as water-pollution control and rural health clinics.
- The formation of a congressional rural caucus which is studying the question of rural community development.
- The National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs which recently published a special report on the "Educational Needs of Rural Women and Girls" (Clarenbach, 1977).
- The national conference on women held in March of 1978 that included as one of its main topic areas the specialized problems of rural women.
- Recent funding by the United States Office of Education targeted toward the rural school. Examples include the Career Education Project of the Cashmere (Washington) School District; The Rural Communication Network (a consortium of three agencies formed to provide information to rural schools and help to rural educators); and The ERIC Clearinghouse for Rural and Small Schools.

- Publications and books such as Rural Oriented Research and Development Projects: A Review and Synthesis by Leonardson and Nelson (1977), and Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom by Sher and Tompkins (1977).

- Projects funded at state and local levels. A good example is the Tri-County Career Development Program that covers eight districts and three counties (Athens, Hocking, and Perry) in Ohio. This program, which serves over 15,000 rural students, receives its support from the Appalachian Regional Commission and the Ohio Department of Education's Career Development Service.

- Career Education Regional Institutional Conferences (N=5) for small school districts sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators, on a national level; and the Georgia Education Exchange (of exemplary projects) conducted under the sponsorship of the Research and Development Utilization Project, Rural and Small Schools, of the Georgia Department of Education, on a state level.

It is with this spirit of revival--of renaissance--that the writers address the issues of guidance and counseling today and tommorrow in our nation's rural and small schools. With the spirit that this reawakened interest must not only be maintained but must be translated into concrete programs and courses of action. With the spirit that the rural school and rural educator must be assisted in providing career development/guidance programs of high quality. Only thus can rural students be helped to develop their full abilities, aspirations, and potentials.

State of the Art

As a reference point it is necessary to examine the rural school beyond the problems and needs already cited, to examine the current state of the rural school in career development/guidance endeavors. Meaningful programs are the result of good leadership--leadership that is often (but not always) provided by the school counselor. But therein lies one of the basic difficulties in establishing career development and guidance programs in rural schools--that is, there is insufficient staff to accomplish the task at hand.

The majority of our nation's rural secondary schools (those that consist of 500 or less students) have no in-residence counselors; and when one is available, it is often a single counselor with responsibility for serving the entire student body. If the size of the school is considerably less than 500 students, guidance services, if offered at all, are only part-time or are supplied by individual classroom teachers. But the picture is even further clouded. Those schools that do provide guidance services still have serious deficiencies in such areas as counselor isolation, perception of the counselor's role by other professionals in the school, lack of time for the counselor to do the job adequately, pressing need for planned programs, and refined planning skills on on the part of the counselor. Table I presents a summary of the status of guidance and counseling as it currently exists in rural schools.

Table 1

The State of Guidance and Counseling in the Rural Schools:

General Factors

Factor	Description of the Factor
Limited numbers of counselors	Estimates are that less than half of the rural schools (~3500 or more) have the services of a part- or full-time counselor.
Counselor geographic isolation	Counselors in rural schools most often work alone, with insufficient opportunities to interact with other counselors, counselor supervisors, and counselor educators.
Counselor time	Many rural school counselors are either part-time counselors with teaching duties or full-time counselors with multiple school responsibilities. In such situations the counselor's efforts in guidance and counseling are stretched thin.
Counselor role	Role confusion and conflict could and probably do result from the problems indicated above. In addition, in some schools the counselor may be perceived as an administrator rather than as having a unique and well-defined guidance role.
Lack of planned, programmatic activities	Due to problems resulting from role confusion, lack of time, and, possibly, limited background and training in program planning, guidance programs may be isolated, not-well-coordinated efforts rather than systematic programs.

On the one hand, there are serious problems and obstacles to be overcome in developing and implementing systematic career development and guidance programs for rural schools. But on the other hand, numerous materials, programs, and training opportunities specially targeted for the rural school counselor are currently available. Rural counselors now have a large number of products and sets of tools to draw upon and use. Counselors do not have to reinvent the wheel; instead, they have the option of adapting existing programs to fit the needs in their districts. If desired, counselors can also develop new materials and processes that are uniquely tailored to their situation and students.

If the academic classroom is seen as part of the career guidance delivery system, then the counselor and teacher have literally hundreds of resources at their fingertips in such areas as English, health education, mathematics, natural resources, and communications. Numerous states--Arizona, Delaware, Florida, Michigan, Ohio, and West Virginia--have developed state plans for career education and career development that include goals and behavioral objectives. These can easily be reviewed and used by the rural school. There are also numerous guidebooks for elementary and secondary teachers, rural school administrators, and counselors. Excellent compendiums of resources with annotations are The Original American Early Morning Primer from Cashmere (Washington) School District (1977) and Career Guidance Resources published by the National Center for Research in Vocational Education (Kimmel, et al., 1977).

Career development/career guidance programs, of course, go far beyond the classroom delivery system. The two sources listed above contain descriptions of testing programs, occupational information kits, group and individual counseling techniques, and placement strategies. The concept of career guidance, however, is one that should and must go beyond the confines of the school walls. The family and the community must be seen as integral to the program. Students must have the opportunity to use the resources in the community and to interact with local occupational role models. Counselors in some areas (Oklahoma, Texas) now have access to mobile guidance vans or buses which travel from school to school and provide materials and resources for rural schools. Computerized information and guidance can now be plugged into by the school and by individual students within the school. Through this technique students can explore career and educational opportunities throughout the country. Skills, requirements, working conditions, and like information can easily be obtained through the computer terminal. Counselors now have access as well to excellent career guidance audio-visual materials such as the "Bread and Butterflies" series produced by the Agency for Instructional Television (1974), available from most state departments of education.

Training for counselors and rural educators in the areas of career development, career education, and career guidance can now be obtained through many sources. Universities continue to offer courses dealing with these topics. Conferences such as those mentioned earlier in this chapter frequently occur on a national or state level and provide the rural counselor and educator with many excellent training opportunities. Counselors also now have a unique program planning and development tool at their disposal. The "Rural America Series" currently consists of a set of 16 handbooks (six additional ones in production) that cover all elements of the planning and implementation of a comprehensive (K-14) career guidance, placement, and follow-through program for rural or small schools. The series, in effect, constitutes an encyclopedia for the processes of conceptualizing, developing, implementing, and evaluating a career guidance program. Throughout the series many practical examples of "how to do it" are given. The planning process described in the series, as of the time of this writing, is being field tested in nine locations throughout the United States. To date training in how to use the series has been provided on a statewide basis in 11 states (National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1977-78).

With the wealth of opportunity and materials available, the counselor, even if full-time, must develop a strategy for coping with time constraints. Time is the enemy of us all, and this is doubly true for the hard-pressed rural counselor. An essential factor in allocating enough time for the development and implementation of the career guidance program is building in more human resources.

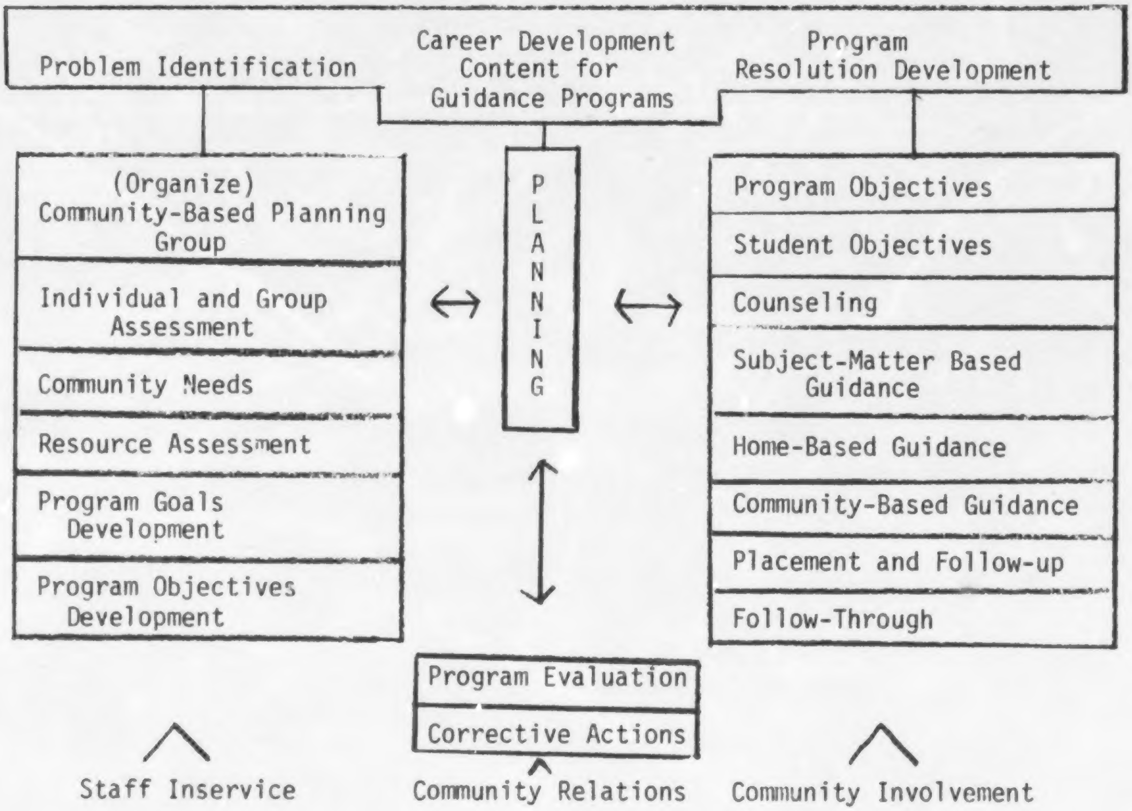
Teachers must be involved; students, especially secondary students, can become a vital part of the program development and implementation process; community and government agencies can and will probably be willing to help out; business/industry/labor groups in many areas are eager and willing to participate; and community members and parents should be encouraged to become part of the career guidance program. If the program is to be viable, the counselor must build in such support from the very early stages of program planning to full scale program implementation. Certainly career guidance programs must be a shared school/community responsibility. The rural school and the community, by working together, can partially if not wholly overcome the disadvantages of limited resources.

The next section of this chapter addresses the following vital questions: Given the nature of the rural need and the circumstances of the rural school, how can the counselor organize for action? How does he/she take full advantage of what is already available?

Future Guidance Perspectives--The Rural Renewal

The career development needs of children, youth, and adults in the nation's rural communities can best be met through systematically developed and implemented career guidance and counseling programs that are based on local needs. Such programs have the potential of adding relevance, humanness, equality, breadth, and utility to the process of learning for living. Rural educators must recognize that career maturity and rewarding life role planning and preparation can only be attained if systematic attention is given to the specific needs, skills, and aspirations of youth.

What does systematic attention mean? Quite simply, it means program planning for what is to be done now so that practical and appropriate life goal planning and decision-making can be made later. It is the process of determining the desired direction and identifying actions and resources needed for getting there in the most effective and efficient manner possible. The following categorical breakdown describes a systems approach to program renewal.


Problem Identification
Career Development Content for Guidance Programs
Program Resolution Development
(Organize) Community-Based Planning Group
Individual and Group Assessment
Community Needs
Resource Assessment
Program Goals Development
Program Objectives Development
PLANNING
Program Objectives
Student Objectives
Counseling
Subject-Matter Based Guidance
Home-Based Guidance
Community-Based Guidance
Placement and Follow-up
Follow-Through
Program Evaluation
Corrective Actions
Staff Inservice
Community Relations
Community Involvement

Although this graphic representation may look complex, no matter how meager the resources are in a rural school, the above steps are achievable. One example of systematic program planning is the rural school career guidance field test currently taking place in nine states under the direction of The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. The nine K-12 districts, their cooperating area post-secondary institutions, and their community groups are finding that being systematic about guidance programming is possible (although tiring) and can result in improved programs and community spirit.

The following issues are important for discussion in any systems approach to career guidance programs in rural schools.

Unique staffing for change

The first major change to be addressed in planning for systematic career guidance is who is to be responsible for various program roles and responsibilities. There is good rationale for the position that everyone can be considered as staff as well as possible clients. Sound confusing? Let us consider the implementation of this concept.

Staff: To be effective, a student- and community-needs-based guidance program needs to utilize all available local resources. All human resources should be drawn together as part of the program staff. This means students, parents, teachers, librarians, counselors, employers, administrators, employees,

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government officials, civic groups, retired personnel, and paraprofessionals. Their skills and interests should be identified; and training, support, and recognition should be provided for all of these important guidance staff persons. A number of studies, for example, show that students have great potential in guidance staff positions if given a chance.

Some exciting current developments in rural schools involve community teaming and cooperation (Stein, et al., 1978). An extensive national survey identified over 250 examples of community cooperation in guidance program improvement. This study helps prove the point that community members become fully functioning guidance staff when they are welcomed and viewed as partners rather than as seldom-listened-to advisors.

Community Participation

Hatch and Las Cruces, New Mexico. New Mexico State University (NMSU) students conducted a door-to-door survey to determine available career guidance resources in the neighboring community of Hatch. Students looked for material resources such as books, kits, and audio-visual materials; human resources persons who were willing to visit schools and describe jobs, products, and related firms or agencies; and facilitative resources such as equipment, rooms for meetings or recreation, tables, office equipment, scholarships, grants, or cash awards.

The resource survey was conducted in cooperation with Hatch

Schools and Dona Ana County Occupational Education Branch of NMSU to help facilitate a major planning aspect of a systematic approach to career guidance. This activity was a part of the "Cooperative Rural Career Guidance System" project sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education and conducted by The National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio.

Placement

Brillion Public Schools, Brillion, Wisconsin. During the past ten years, the Brillion Public Schools have cooperated with community and state agencies to offer their students a most unique placement experience. While the school's curriculum-based career guidance program teaches many of the initial skills for self-placement, staff members have found unique ways of providing students with first-hand experiences such as the following:

- Each interested student has the opportunity to engage in two mock job interviews.
- A public employment agency counselor spends one day a week in residence in the school.
- College and postsecondary vocational school (public and private) admissions counselors visit the school yearly for educational placement possibilities.
- A large number of work experience, work study, and cooperative education programs is available.
- Local industry and business provide a variety of employee/student shadowing programs plus job observation opportunities.

Subject-Matter-Based Guidance

Cashmere Public Schools, Cashmere, Washington. This small school district has a comprehensive subject-matter-based career guidance program, with comprehensive career development curriculum guides for each grade level and subject area. Additionally, there is a massive resource library for teachers, plus a teacher/student guidance period scheduled each day in which career planning, decision making, try-out, and self-evaluation activities take place.

Student Career Development Assessment

Forest Park High School, Crystal Falls, Michigan. Time, financial resources, expectations, and just the sheer bother of collecting individual student career development needs data more often than not result in minimal student assessment. Personnel in Crystal Falls, Michigan, found that by involving a number of students as guidance staff in the assessment process, much of the pain and time of assessment could be overcome. Data collection, statistical analysis, report typing, and distribution are completed most efficiently by students who use the experience as a classroom activity related to English, social studies, mathematics, and business education. Besides accomplishing the tasks of assessment, students and staff feel that they are playing an important guidance role and can see how their efforts are translated into improved guidance services, either by the teacher or by the counselor.

Career Resource Centers

Michigan State Department of Education. Michigan has taken a leadership role in developing career resource centers and supporting their implementation through state funding. In 1977, they produced an outstanding handbook on the subject, with blueprints, resource materials, and organizational suggestions.

Paraprofessional Counseling and Guidance

Eckerd College, St. Petersburg, Florida. Within the nine public and private school districts in and around St. Petersburg, Florida, Eckerd College has provided leadership in training volunteer guidance and counseling personnel. Through special career search materials and techniques, 55 volunteers with broad previous work experience provide career search, exploration, planning, and decision-making experiences for several hundred students.

Parent Participation

PATCHWORK Project (Potential Activated Through Career Horizons Work), Central Kansas Area Vocational Technical School, Newton, Kansas. This program addresses the needs of students (K-12) in career decision-making and goal-setting. Students are helped to develop positive concepts regarding themselves, their ideas, their activities, and to create a product as a result of experiencing career activities. In order to serve students better, project staff conducting the career guidance activities learn human potential concepts through a basic leadership training seminar. They then attend curriculum development workshops in which they discuss human and career development concepts, set grade-level objectives, and design a 3-week comprehensive, sequential program (K-12). Parents become informed about the program through career orientation nights held in each unified school district. The student program follows with a week of activities, one hour per day, in each of the development phases. Post-parent nights and a second curriculum workshop follow to review the data and to make any necessary revisions of the program.

Mobilization of Career Guidance

Mobile Career Development Center, Eastern Upper Peninsula Intermediate Schoool District, Rudyard, Michigan. This district has acquired a mobile unit equipped as a guidance office to implement career development in schools within the district. Counselors assigned to the unit collect, organize, and disseminate career information to high school students, teachers, and other counselors. This process, in conjunction with formal counseling, provides an effective, balanced program of career guidance. The counselors work through classroom teachers at the elementary level to stress self-awareness and to introduce the students to the world of work. They also assist junior high school students in career exploratory activities in conjunction with the Career Exploration for Related Training program and serve as a resource center for teachers. At the senior high school level, counselors aid students in focusing their interests and aptitudes on specific careers, and further advise them on steps necessary to achieve their career goals. In addition, the unit includes individual and group counseling, interest and aptitude testing, job site visitations, weekly radio programs on career opportunities in the area, resource people, and experience with job interviews and writing job applications and resumes. It also provides meetings on apprenticeship programs and offers assistance to school teachers and administrators in the development of their career education programs.

Inservice training

School to Employment Process Program (STEP), Central Kansas Area Vocational Technical School, Newton, Kansas. This program is designed to help counselors familiarize themselves with what employers expect from prospective employees, keep up-to-date on the widening career fields open to students, deal with self-development, and help students enter the work force prepared personally and academically. STEP has endeavored to eliminate the standard one-way learning approach and emphasizes small group interaction. Developing linkages is an integral part of the STEP process. Activities between counselors and employers include an early exploration interview, a later linkup interview to standardize format and expand discussion, and a group meeting for further school/industry experiences.

Special Needs

Becker-Clay County Special Education Cooperative Program, Audubon, Minnesota. The program involves 126 mentally retarded and handicapped students from eight school districts in rural Minnesota. This center offers an individualized program to help each student acquire entry level skills in an area of expressed interest. Fourteen career areas have been identified, and each student explores as many areas as possible. Academic studies are related to job exploration, and students also have courses in physical education and social relations, taking classes in either the regular or the vocational school. Students achieve entry skills on a par with any other applicant for a specific job. The teacher-work coordinator evaluates students in on-the-job positions twice weekly, and there is a 3-year follow-up program. The Director of Special Education works with the Board of Directors, consisting of a representative from each school district, the teachers, and the students, in forming policy. A recently implemented program is the Lifemanship Skills for Special Needs Youth, which provides a community-living setting to help them acquire social living skills necessary for independent living.

Special Populations

Career Opportunities Program, Rocky Boy Reservation, Box Elder, Montana. Community people, mostly native Americans, are learning to be teachers on the job at the Rocky Boy Reservation School. As a part of the national Career Opportunities Program

(C.O.P.) for teacher training, this program hires new student applicants on the basis of interviews with a review board of teachers and other C.O.P. students. Each C.O.P. student in training helps develop an individual plan for learning; this plan may include adult education courses or courses offered by extension from Northern Montana State College. The project director works directly with college teachers to tailor courses to the classroom experience of each C.O.P. student.

Imperatives for Guidance Program Change

After examining the need for, current conditions of, and the potential for guidance and counseling in our nation's rural and small schools, the following suggestions are offered as imperatives for guidance program change. Guidance workers will need to:

1. Acquire sufficient support staff to handle those administrative tasks that normally deplete available counseling hours.

2. Use more fully the available community-wide career resources and counseling services that are planned and staffed by employers, state and Federal agencies, and local educational staff.

3. Avail themselves of increased, professional renewal opportunities where they can obtain individually tailored experiences, and be willing to make the personal investment for such professional growth.

4. Have available through area cooperatives technology such as educational TV, computers, and phone networks, along with

assessment assistance, data exchange, information dissemination, and program planning.

5. Be involved in curriculum committees for annual curriculum renewal based upon changing student needs and conditions.

6. Be available in sufficient numbers to provide intensive rural school guidance and counseling assistance in classrooms, learning laboratories, work experience, job sites, and the home.

7. Prioritize the provision of follow-up and follow-through counseling services to youth and adults in transition to work, further education, military service, unemployment, and/or marriage.

8. Increase their efforts to cooperate with teachers, employers, placement agencies, and parents so as to provide more timely and more sufficient employability and employment skills and promote attitudes for successful self-attained placement of all rural students.

9. Increase their involvement in advisory capacities to employers, community agencies, school boards, and parent groups to allow broad, community-wide planning and delivery of education for employment, leisure, and other life role transitions.

10. Provide greater staff inservice leadership to build competencies on the part of faculty, staff, paraprofessionals, and other community and family members for their future roles as guidance workers in rural communities.

11. Utilize new ways of allowing a larger number of students to participate in peer counseling, guidance program planning, guidance strategy and material development, and the delivery of guidance activities in the classroom, guidance office, and community.

12. Operationalize a broad-based guidance community relations program to elicit greater community support for expanding guidance staff resources and activities.

13. Collect current achievement, interest, career development, placement, and follow-up data on an annual basis to plan the guidance program proactively and make it accountable.

14. Acquire broad-based community contracts and demand flexible work schedules to allow for maximum guidance program use during evenings, weekends, vacations, early mornings, and summers.

15. Demonstrate the need for and demand increased time to provide developmental counseling for individuals at all levels within the rural school.

16. Participate more actively in the many guidance-related national and state professional associations, especially those focusing on the guidance needs of special students.

In summary, guidance workers in our rural and small schools must believe that (1) what they do is critical to the lives of their students and is as important as any other program in the school, (2) what they do is justifiable and achievable with data-supported program standards, (3) they have a responsibility for amassing data to justify their effectiveness, (4) they are educational leaders in our schools, and (5) they have a right to demand the necessary support and resources to accomplish program goals and student objectives.

Recommendations for Rural School Guidance Redirection

The magnitude of career guidance needs of individuals in our nation's rural and small communities and the complexity of potential solutions to meet those needs deserve prompt attention by educational leadership at all levels. The implementation of possible resolutions to the problems found therein will require the cooperation of state departments of education; intermediate multi-school cooperatives; the U.S. Office of Education; the National Institute of Education; the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, and Commerce; industry and business groups and organizations; and local school boards, administrators, and school staff members. The following recommendations are based in part upon studies conducted by a number of agencies who have focused on the needs and concerns of our nation's rural and small schools. The recommendations are organized in terms of agencies or groups who can impact upon rural career guidance needs.

Federal Education Agencies

The Federal funding initiatives for rural and small schools have not been equal to date to the size of the population. New priorities and resource allocations in the areas of research, development, training, and technical services must be forthcoming, some of which are described below:

1. Research. With the absence of data concerning the problems of our rural youth, increased research must focus on (a) rural guidance program barriers, (b) causes for limited guidance staff and budgets in rural schools, (c) unemployment, (d) sex bias conditions, (e) unique work-focused coping and adjustment problems, (f) effects of shared program efforts, (g) validity and usability of current assessment measures, and (h) "significant other" influence factors.

2. Development. A careful examination of career guidance program material needs is critical. This could result in modifying current materials for rural school use or developing new, specialized materials that respond to conditions in our rural and small schools.

3. Training. It is apparent that the guidance staff in our 7,600 rural schools are disadvantaged in regard to opportunities for and/or utilization of existing inservice training programs. Federal funds will be needed to provide such new initiatives as:

   a. development of rural/urban counselor exchange programs;
   b. development of a national career guidance institute for rural and small school staff;

c. development of a national network of trained guidance leaders that are skilled, supported, and available to meet these specialized needs on an on-call basis;

d. provision of national and/or state communication and material networks.

Intermediate Educational Units

A primary purpose for the creation of various types of educational cooperatives (approximately 1,900 nationally) was to provide area-based assistance to rural and small schools. While these intermediate units have made excellent strides in the past, the following are additional suggestions for ways they could further respond to their constituency's needs:

1. Develop a series of guidance services for rural school personnel on a low-fee basis, including the services listed below:

   a. free access phone communication consultant services on current practices, materials, and information;
   b. mobile career guidance libraries;
   c. special inservice training based upon staff competency and interest surveys;
   d. communication of career guidance information to area schools through the fostering of school-sharing initiatives;
   e. special guidance newsletters that deal with such topics as professional renewal opportunities, new resource materials, and promising guidance practices

2. Develop state and/or Federal guidance proposals designed around the needs in their area's schools.

3. Explore possibilities of offering university or extension courses on career guidance issues within the jurisdiction.

State Departments of Education

Increased staff services, research, development, and financial resource reallocations for our rural and small schools are imperative. The following are but a few ways in which state departments of education can help meet the needs of their rural school constituencies:

1. Develop a system of mobilized career guidance services that will reach out into the rural counties and local districts at little or no cost. The services could include the following:

   a. career guidance resource centers;
   b. inservice training opportunities;
   c. career guidance communication networks including toll-free telephone consultation, specialized newsletters, and area-based opportunities to share experiences and gain new guidance program skills cooperatively.

2. Develop and implement a systematic field visit and technical services system to rural districts through the use of state staff, counselor educators, or specially trained and funded

consultants.

3. Create a new priority for guidance programs in rural schools within both state and Federal funding guidelines. Proposal writing assistance might also be necessary to enable the rural schools to obtain these new funds.

4. Develop within state guidance and career education plans special priorities and resource allocations for rural and small schools.

National Noneducational Agencies

During the past few years Federal- and state-related agencies such as the Departments of Labor, Commerce, and Agriculture have created new opportunities for dealing with rural guidance programs and problems. Before these initiatives will realize major impact on rural audiences, new efforts are needed, such as the following:

1. Agencies must insure that funding reaches in-school students as a part of the existing guidance program rather than create new external offices which compete with rather than enhance in-school activities.

2. Rural educators must be a part of the planning for new efforts and be kept current on the resources and services available and how to acquire them.

3. Specialized training efforts should be made available to update existing program staff rather than hiring and training new community- or area-based staff.

Business and Industry

While industry and business have provided a wide range of guidance activities. most are focused toward guidance staff located in metropolitan areas. With the increasing trend for industry and business to look to rural communities for trained workers and industrial sites, there is need to assist rural school staff members to understand the impact of this trend and to acquire the skills to help rural students take advantage of it in developing their career plans.

Local School and Communities

The bottom line of change must reside with rural and small school staff if they expect to gain new levels of support from outside groups for renewal. In order to accomplish this change in their career guidance roles, they must initiate such activities as the following:

1. Acquire through community resource surveys a greater knowledge of the rich human, material, and financial resources already available.

2. Develop a more comprehensive student and community needs profile for future guidance program renewal.

3. Assume increased responsibility for self-improvement by participating in inservice training opportunities sponsored by professional associations, state departments, and universities.

4. Become more aggressive in demanding rightful allocations

of educational funding and state- or area-level services.

5. Strive to foster more positive attitudes toward the importance of guidance and counseling in the total curriculum.

Summary

This chapter has considered the topic of guidance and counseling today and tomorrow in our nation's rural and small schools from the dual perspective of the schools' strengths and limitations. Many of the statements may be somewhat subjective in nature, and the recommendations may speak possibly to the ideal. The critical point to be made is that youth, no matter in what educational or community setting they reside, have similar needs for systematic career development assistance which to a great extent can be found only in their local school. It is essential, therefore, that the rural school use its unique strengths to the fullest extent and strive to remedy its limitations so that rural youth receive the developmental guidance and counseling they so richly deserve.

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6 elementary guidance: a close encounter of a new kind

Billie P. Jackson and Lea B. Reeves

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ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE:

A CLOSE ENCOUNTER OF A NEW KIND

Billie P. Jackson and Lea B. Reeves

This chapter underlines the importance of elementary school counseling, which stands today at a crossroads. Its original impetus from Federal funding is diminishing through poor economic conditions and the "back to basics" movement in education. The authors analyze the common features of effective elementary guidance programs, including, among other factors, support from teachers, students, parents, and administrators. They also examine problems frequently encountered by such programs, including lack of staff orientation, high counselor-student ratios, and unrealistic expectations. The chapter concludes with a list of recommendations for counselors, supervisors, and counselor educators interested in promoting effective elementary school counseling.

Rationale

Never before have children faced demands and pressures like those exerted by today's society. Skills in living and coping for survival are essential tools that must be taught at an early age. Awareness of the need for guidance services at the elementary school level has in part been initiated by changes in the economic and social life of American society. Crowded classrooms, decreasing parental guidance, and an increasingly complex society in general call for increased help for children in school.

The most favorable time for attacking school and social problems is during the early formative years. According to research, 50% of a child's intellectual development occurs between ages 4 and 8. Studies of child development indicate that children establish lifelong behavioral patterns from ages 6 through 10--the first four years of school! Elementary guidance thus offers a "close encounter" at the most critical time of a child's early years.

Early intervention in personal development is far more effective and economical than remedial efforts offered later in the child's schooling. The school must provide individuals with successful learning experiences during the period of rapid growth in the elementary school. Elementary guidance offers a "close encounter" at a time when intellect, school achievement, and attitudes and values are developing.

The absence of mental illness and maladjustment in adulthood is related to the development of feelings of self-worth in childhood. Continual evidence of success or failure in school is likely to have a major effect on individuals' self-regard and, subsequently, their mental health. Elementary guidance offers a "close encounter" which is likely to have a significant influence on a child's mental health and adjustment.

Students in the nation's schools are showing a general decline in achievement and responsible social behavior. National polls of parents and teachers consistently rate discipline as the No. 1 school problem, and violence in the schools annually costs the country an estimated

600 million dollars and threatens serious disruption of the education process.

Elementary guidance offers a "close encounter" for providing major assistance in ameliorating many problems school and society are currently facing. Early identification of problems and preventative assistance for children provide more hope than corrective measures after behavior patterns become more firmly established. Although teachers are cognizant of students' needs and continue to try to assist them in their development, the current emphasis on teaching the basics, coupled with declining resources and increasing needs, considerably diminish the amount of time and effort teachers can give to the affective domain.

The elementary guidance program and, more specifically, the elementary counselor, are not a panacea to meet all the needs of school and society, but they do comprise a positive "close encounter" that over time can more than pay for itself.

Historical Development

Although guidance specialists have been present in a few metropolitan school systems at the elementary level since the 1930's, their activities have changed drastically. In the past, often they served more than one school and resembled a hybrid variety of social worker, psychologist, and secondary school counselor. They frequently tried to merge their secondary counselor training into an elementary school framework. Tending to be crisis-oriented due to their circumstances and training, they focused on children with problems, chiefly operating on a one-to-one basis. Often they became merely diagnostic testers of children and were in charge of the school testing program.

Among the early pioneers of today's elementary counseling with its focus on the developmental aspects of guidance and the learning climate of the school were Anna Meeks, Sara Leiter, Walter Lifton, Ray Patouillet, George Hill, Harold Cottingham, Merle Ohlsen, and Herman Peters.

The elementary guidance movement did not really get underway until the mid 60's when NDEA Title V-A (which had originated in 1958 and had given impetus to secondary guidance) was extended to include elementary guidance as well. Elementary guidance institutes and pilot projects emerged throughout the country. Among those assisting in the development of the "new" elementary school counselor were Verne Faust, Don Dinkmeyer, and Bob Myrick. A major function of counselors in elementary schools centered around consultation with parents and teachers, developmental guidance with small groups of children, and classroom guidance activities.

Little information was collected and published on the growth and development of elementary guidance nationwide until a survey was done in 1967 (Van Hoose & Vafakas, 1968). The survey showed that there were 3,837 elementary school counselors in 48 states. In 1969, there were 6,041 elementary counselors in all 50 states; in 1971, the total had risen to 7,982. A study in 1975 conducted by Bob Myrick and Linda Moni (Myrick & Moni, 1976) revealed that there were 10,770 counselors in

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elementary schools throughout the nation. The most recent 1977 survey indicates a slight decline, with 10,090 counselors serving in elementary schools.

Programs and Projects

California and New York were among the first states to initiate elementary guidance programs statewide. Both developed the role of the elementary counselor through trial and error procedures, and other states have profited from their "growing pains," sometimes surpassing the pioneering efforts of these two states in building their own programs. The experimental programs and projects of California, in particular, have been influential in developing today's role of the elementary counselor. One example is a program in preventative counseling in Lagunitas Elementary School, San Geronimo, California (California Department of Education, 1975, pp. 57-58), which is designed to alleviate severe social difficulties in classrooms. The area contains several communes, and 50% of the students are from single-parent homes. Programs include group counseling in classrooms dealing with problem solving, teacher workshops in conducting such groups, divorce counseling (parents and children), prescreening of students for kindergarten, and individual behavior management.

Elementary school counselors in Texas and Florida have been extremely active and possess clear-cut identity. Texas programs are currently concerned with, and strongly emphasize, the consultative function of the counselor. In Florida, elementary counselors are keenly aware of the value of public relations and accountability. Knowledge of and ability in these areas have been necessary for survival and expansion of programs.

Originally, if one portion of the country were to be identified as leading in the elementary guidance movement, it would probably have been the Northcentral United States, in such states as Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio. Today, leadership appears to be emerging in the Southeast. With both North Carolina and Florida benefiting from state funding, elementary guidance programs are well developed and defined. Virginia and South Carolina have been actively pursuing elementary counselor legislation. Other states such as West Virginia, Alabama, and Georgia are beginning to look at the possibilities of seeking state funding in order to expand programs.

Augusta County in Virginia (1971-1974) has a nationally validated Title III elementary guidance ESEA project entitled, "School-Community Cooperative Guidance Program," which received both the "President's Educational Pacesetter Award" and the "Excellence in Education Award." The project is aimed at increasing teacher competence and morale, increasing pupil academic performance, and increasing parental support for school activities, while decreasing disruptive classroom behavior. The major objectives of the project were to examine the efficacy and feasibility of guidance services which include all three of the elementary school counselor's functions: counseling, consulting, and coordinating. This project has aided in the development of other programs in Virginia, particularly in Augusta County.

New York State developed a unique Title III project (New York Department of Education, 1975) to meet a common need: lack of effective communications at the "grass roots" level. "Elementary Guidance Communications Network" served as a practical system to support existing elementary counseling programs and to promote new programs. The network system was designed to diminish counselors' feelings of isolation and give them a chance to share both the successes and problems they encountered.

Another practical project was offered through Title III and Title IV funding to 59 school districts in Ohio from 1974 to 1977. Entitled "A Process for Implementing Elementary Guidance Services With Classroom Teachers" (1976), this project has demonstrated the successful use of guidance activities and materials in the classroom. It is based on the belief that guidance services may become an integral part of the elementary child's school experience through the leadership of the principal, the program coordination of the counselor, and the involvement of teachers. Hawaii's Foundation Guidance Program Guide for K-12: Developmental Classroom Guidance (1976), from the Department of Education, has much the same focus.

Arizona has developed an impressive publication through ESEA Title III funds which was prepared primarily for use by counseling and guidance personnel, but teachers also may find it useful. Creative Action Counseling Techniques and Useful Strategies (1976) is a resource notebook which should stimulate improvement in the quality and evaluation of guidance programs in Arizona schools.

Many states do not have fully developed elementary guidance programs statewide, but have scattered districts that are pockets of excellence and serve as models for elementary guidance in that state. One of these is located in Gwinnitt County near Atlanta, Georgia. The elementary counselors in Lawrenceville work closely together and have excellent inservice training on a regular basis. Another pocket of excellence is the ESEA Title I Child Guidance project in New Castle, Delaware (1977), which emphasizes child guidance coupled with a parent partnership program. With the exception of this program, elementary guidance is almost unknown in the State of Delaware.

Some programs combine elementary guidance with other student services, such as the nationally validated RIPPS (Reading Instruction and Pupil Personnel Services) project in Portsmouth and South Kingstown, Rhode Island (1975). This program attempts to coordinate all the factors contributing to a child's development. Through active participation of the pupil personnel staff, the administration, classroom teachers, and the school nurse, an interdisciplinary team offers an individualized learning approach in the cognitive and affective domains. RIPPS gives assistance to parents, teachers, school personnel, and the community, who in turn influence the child. The program's close link with reading and the counselor's role in the learning process make this a popular approach in today's "back to the basics" thrust.

Current Status

Historically, elementary guidance programs emerged through Federal funding, but have increased by a meager 2,000 nationally over the past eight years because of diminished funding from Washington. Serving as barriers to the expansion of elementary guidance programs are today's economy meshed with this "back to the basics" trend.

Leading states in terms of numbers of elementary counselors are Texas with 823, California with 775, Florida with 739, and Pennsylvania with 654 (see map on page). Most states have fewer than 200 counselors at the elementary level, with 17 states having fewer than 100. United States territories such as Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands have fared comparatively well in terms of elementary counselors with ratios of one counselor per 500-800 students.

Many states, such as New York, Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio, which were elementary guidance leaders during the period of NDEA funding, have suffered losses of elementary counselors in more recent years. In many instances, when national funding sources became exhausted, programs disappeared. In others, spiraling costs, combined with lack of money in local school districts, caused elementary school counselors to be the first to be cut. This trend appeared to have little to do with the acceptance of and interest in elementary guidance programs. Most cuts seemed to be due to the fact that elementary guidance was new and that standards were lacking for these counselors.

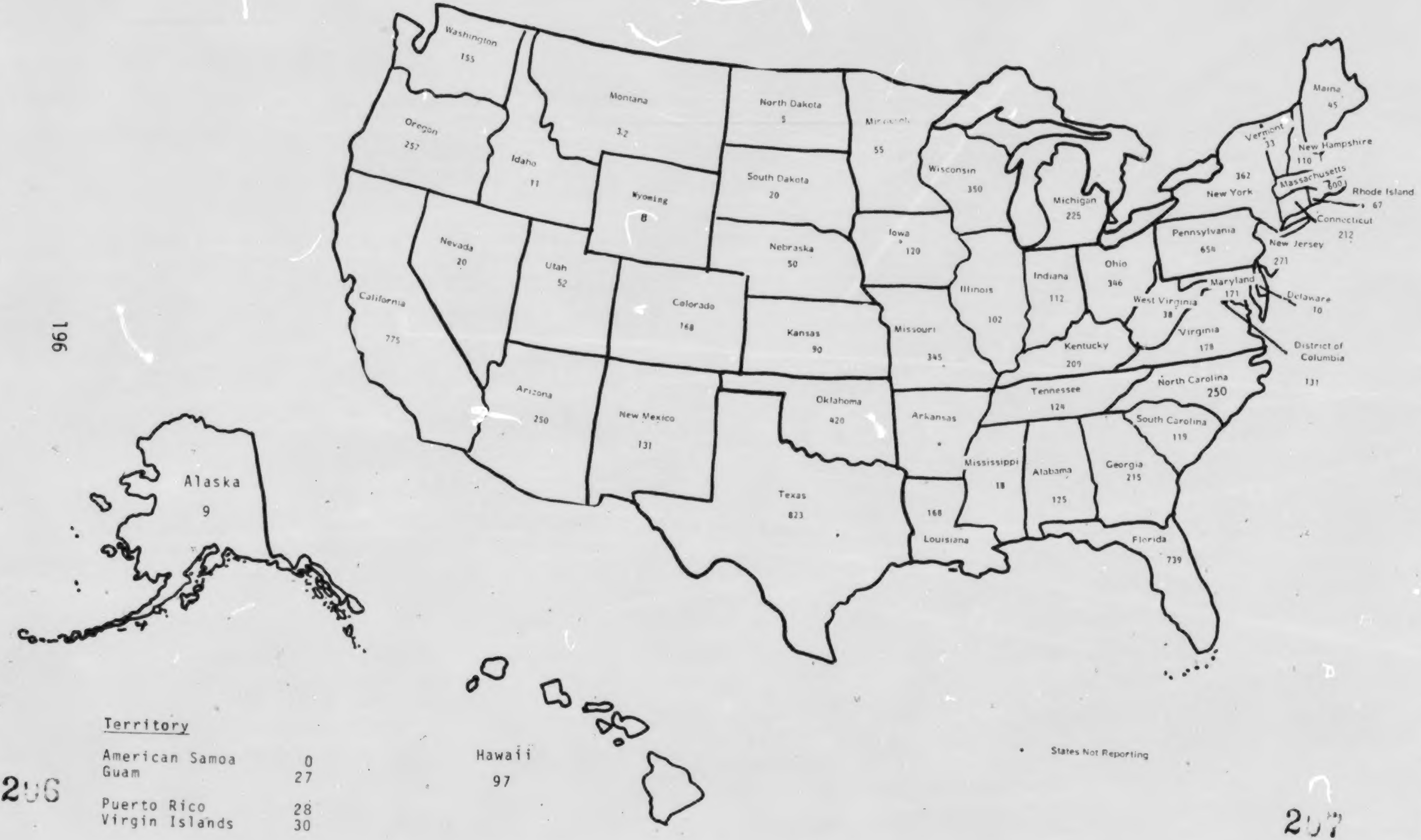
Positive developments have occurred in some states when elementary counseling positions were threatened by local school boards. Florida obtained elementary counselor legislation in 1971, after rallying massive grassroots support by a multitude of state organizations. Currently, state revenue has assured the continuation and expansion of elementary counseling programs in Florida. Other states with elementary counselor legislation are Utah, Oklahoma, North Carolina, and Hawaii. At least a dozen states are following this example and pursuing state funding, as local school boards are faced with escalating costs, dilemmas of continuing existing programs, and lack of funds to expand or initiate new programs and services.

Efforts have recently been initiated to obtain national support for elementary counselors through the American School Counselor Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association. There is currently no Federal bill or law containing specific provisions for elementary guidance and counseling and/or for the hiring of elementary school counselors at the local district level.

Early in 1978, a diverse group of representatives from national educational interests (the U.S. Office of Education, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, and the White House Domestic Council Staff; House and Senate staff members of Education committees; and leaders and staff of APGA) met in Washington to introduce this new thrust.

Elementary counselors have been well received, but have emerged as a group at a difficult time in the nation's economy. Thus, funding sources will need to be sought actively in order to retain and expand the programs.

ELEMENTARY COUNSELORS IN THE UNITED STATES
1977-1978



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Guam	27
Puerto Rico	28
Virgin Islands	30

Commonalities of Effective Counseling Programs

Support of Teachers

The front line professional in public education, the classroom teacher, faces an increasing array of demands, limitations, and considerations in the performance of his or her daily tasks. Such areas of concern as affective education, career education, discipline, violence, vandalism, drug abuse, student rights, and mainstreaming the exceptional student demand that a teacher be a "jack-of-all-trades" in order to survive in today's classroom. The elementary counselor is in a key position to offer support to teachers amidst this barrage of professional concerns. Effective elementary counselors are promoters of developmental programs which involve all students, and therefore, offer assistance to all teachers. John R. Cook (1977), Supervisor of Guidance Services, Virginia Department of Education, in addressing a 1977 Virginia Senate Education Committee, said: "Effective guidance can free classroom teachers so that they can provide quality instruction, especially in the basics--reading, writing, and arithmetic."

Creating a positive school climate is a major goal toward which all counselors should strive. This single goal provides the classroom teacher with the greatest support and produces workable solutions to many perplexing problems.

The counselor offers the teacher a sympathetic ear for airing problems and frustrations, both professional and personal. An effective counselor will not only be a good listener, but can guide the teacher toward possible solutions which foster improved teacher productivity. The counselor can also assist the teacher with classroom management problems. By fostering improved communications between the home and the school, the counselor can ease teacher frustration with a supposedly apathetic public. Developing curricula which address the affective domain is again an area in which the counselor can be of assistance to the teacher. The counselor can initiate positive changes in the school environment by demonstrating in-class guidance lessons utilizing the wide array of affective materials available on the market today. Counselor input in curriculum planning can help teachers deal with many student emotional needs through actual instruction. Because counselors are often aware of school and area resources for meeting student, parent, and teacher needs, they can be most effective in channeling appropriate resources to meet individual student needs.

Mr. Cook, (op. cit.) in his brief remarks to that Senate Committee in Virginia, clearly summarized the counselor's relationship with teachers when he said: "In no way does the presence of a professionally trained elementary counselor diminish the role of the classroom teacher; rather, the counselor is supportive, cooperative, and helpful in every way." And teachers themselves are the first to voice this opinion, as evidenced by a 1975 study conducted in Florida which showed that 80% to 85% of teachers strongly support elementary counselors (Florida Department of Education, 1972-1975).

Utilization of Programs by Students

Any program, no matter how beneficial to students, will only realize its goals if students properly utilize its services. Effective counselors establish early student referral systems which provide clear avenues of communication for any child seeking help.

The results of a current Hawaiian statewide opinion survey (Katekaru, 1977) administered to 840 students in grades four, five, and six in randomly selected schools showed:

68% felt that their school provided help in understanding themselves.
25% felt more help was needed in understanding themselves.

88% felt that their school provided help in getting along with others.
37% felt that more help was needed in getting along with others.

67% felt that their school provided help in improving in their work.
29% felt that more help was needed in improving in their work.

94% felt that their school guidance programs ranged from fair to good.
5% felt that their school guidance program was poor.

These data suggest that some students were asking for help with personal, social, and career concerns. More than 90% of the students rated the guidance services at their school as fair or good. This would tend to indicate that many of these students were utilizing the services of the counselor and were having positive experiences with their school guidance programs.

An effective counselor examines carefully the needs of the school's student population. Such problems as vandalism, violence, low achievement scores, or attendance, may become the focus of student-oriented programs. It is vital that these programs be directly and easily utilized by the students. A case in point is an elementary school in Miami, Florida, which, in the 1975-76 school year, ranked in the bottom quarter of the district's elementary schools in attendance. A counselor was assigned to the school. After one year, the school's attendance ranked in the top quarter in the district. This turnabout was a direct result of positive approaches with the students that were initiated by the counselor. At the counselor's suggestion, the school instituted daily announcements of students with good attendance records and placed their photos in the hallways. The counselor worked specifically with chronic absentees and produced significant results in many cases. Effective elementary counseling focuses on student problems, and establishes programs dealing with areas of concern. Proper utilization by students is a major factor which will produce dramatic results as seen in this urban school.

Administrative Priority

The understanding, cooperation, and support of a school administrator is another crucial factor in the success of any program. Without the support of the school principal, the counselor has an uphill struggle in making any meaningful contributions to the school environment. Fortunately, many principals faced with increased demands on and criticism of public elementary schools are turning to elementary guidance and counseling as an answer. A 1975-76 study conducted in Washoe County, Nevada, examined the perceptions of 30 elementary school principals as to counselor needs and duties (Pierce, 1975-76).

The first and most apparent finding of this survey was strong evidence that principals of the Washoe County School District do want elementary counselors and that they rank the need for their services high on their list of priorities. The second finding of this survey indicated that a large majority of these principals had a clear understanding of the counselor's role in the elementary school. Responses on this survey also indicated a high priority for full-time counselors at a ratio of one counselor for up to 500 students.

The Nevada study followed a national survey conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals/American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 1973), which disclosed that elementary counseling was available in 32% of the schools involved. The principals in this survey also displayed a thorough understanding of the elementary counselor's duties and general support for such programs. Undoubtedly, there are still some skeptics regarding elementary guidance among the administrative ranks in our nation's elementary schools. However, they seem to be diminishing in numbers as counseling programs consistently demonstrate their effectiveness and worth.

Support of Parents

Statisticians estimate that after six years of elementary schooling only 7% of a child's life has been absorbed by the school. From this it would be fairly safe to assume that home environment and parental influence are of critical importance in a child's formative years. A school which is actively seeking to meet student needs, then, will logically seek parent input and support. The elementary counselor who is well trained in the area of human relations can serve as a bridge between home and school.

An outstanding example of parent support for elementary guidance programs is found in the Augusta County Public Schools in Virginia (1971-1974). This Title III ESEA Project, begun in 1971, placed a major emphasis on parental support for school activities and policies. A measurable objective of this project was to increase the frequency and variety of parent involvement in school activities. This project established guidance services to facilitate a "cooperative working partnership" between the home and the school.

Tallies made during this study indicated that parent involvement increased. And in June, 1973, parents sent a petition to the Superintendent of Augusta County Schools strongly urging that counselors be employed in all of the county's elementary schools. From this strong public sentiment the principals developed a 5-year plan for implementing guidance services throughout the county. This plan was adopted by the School Board, and elementary guidance was firmly established in this school district.

Parental involvement in the schools tends to foster public support, not only for elementary guidance programs but also for other worthwhile educational programs. The counselor who fulfills the role of liaison between the home and the school truly serves children's needs in a meaningful way.

Responsiveness to Specific School Needs

Our nation's public schools are as individual as the children found in them. Each region of our country has unique characteristics which place varying demands on public education. Even within a local school district such factors as student enrollment, faculty size, administrative attitude, community economic level, funding, and facilities may precipitate different concerns from school to school. The counselor must examine an individual school as closely as one would examine an individual child who needed help. Only after careful assessment of the school's strengths and weaknesses can a comprehensive program be designed which is tailored to meet the school's specific needs effectively.

A 1974-75 ESEA Title III study conducted by the Pennsylvania Department of Education (1975) surveyed a sample of elementary children, K-6, in the Carlisle School District. Approximately 450 boys and girls in each grade responded to a questionnaire designed to determine attitudes toward school. The results of this study seem to indicate that schools are "turning-off" children. The authors of this study concluded that "Planned programs for improving the attitudes of teachers, administrators, parents, and children must be designed and implemented." The elementary counselor can do much to alter this situation.

The responsiveness of counselors to school needs requires continual evaluation and feed-back. Counselors must be flexible, ready to alter their course and adapt their methodologies as new situations arise. Effective counselors must be sensitive to changes and needs created by them. Constantly updating guidance programs is essential if counselors are to be meaningful contributors to the school environment.

Provision of Balanced Services

A predominate characteristic of many successful elementary guidance programs is that they offer a balance of services. Counseling, consultation, and coordination are carefully juggled by the counselor so that no single service receives an unduly large proportion of the counselor's time. There is much to be done in public elementary schools. The effective counselor is in a unique position to view school needs and to make careful plans so that equitable attention is given to all areas, thus insuring appropriate services to students, parents, and teachers.

Student Services Team Endorsement

School social workers, school psychologists, school nurses, and a newcomer--the elementary counselor--compose a team which offers support to other professional educators within the school. As a new member of this team, the prudent counselor will take the time to talk to these professional associates and investigate their views on the role and responsibilities of each team member. A counselor who storms into existing student service roles often steps on toes, and may alienate other valuable team members. This type of behavior will only hinder the beginning guidance program. The wise counselor will employ his/her best human relations techniques regarding other student service personnel. He/she will enlist their support and respect their opinions. In so doing, the counselor is facilitating a strong team effort which will better meet student needs.

Community Support

A sound counseling program needs community support for two major reasons. First, many community services meet student needs in ways not found in the school system. Mental health agencies, medical services, public service organizations, religious groups, all offer services which can effectively meet many student needs. Second, public support and pressure are essential if elementary guidance services are to receive continued funding in these economically fragile times.

An effective counselor actively promotes positive public relations. Through efforts such as parent involvement, volunteer programs, Parent Teacher Association/Parent Teacher Organization programs, newspaper articles, and television and radio interviews, counselors can reach the community with positive information concerning the school. These activities weave strong bonds of community understanding and support.

An important function of the elementary counselor is to seek out and coordinate community resources for client needs not served by the school. An effective counselor establishes systematic communication with these community resource personnel and thus expands the services offered to students.

Accessibility to Staff Members

A counselor must not be identified too closely with any single subgroup or individual within the faculty. This kind of liaison may close off communication with other individuals. A counselor must be seen as accessible by all faculty members. The effective counselor has contacts with each teacher on a regular basis. Teachers in turn feel free to come to the counselor for help. Thus, a major channel is created for a reciprocal flow of support and consultation between the counselor and all faculty members.

Systematic Feedback

The effective counselor establishes and utilizes a referral system that provides a consistent means of feedback. Without feedback, the teacher who refers a child does not know if or when any action was taken. Parents who are concerned about their child's problem may ask for assistance from the counselor. If the counselor does not communicate actions taken, the parents may feel that the counselor has ignored their request for help.

Feedback does not require that the counselor divulge confidences; it simply requires that the counselor communicate to the requestor that something has been done, and it is an essential part of effective counseling. This type of system reassures those referring that their requests have been responded to. More important, it encourages additional referrals to the counselor.

Child-Advocate Role

An overriding commonality of all guidance programs in elementary schools is that the counselor is in the unique position of child-advocate. As child-advocate, the counselor does not attack teachers or parents. Rather, the counselor utilizes sound human relation skills to unite these adults in the student's behalf and, subsequently, facilitates cooperative planning and intervention that will truly help each student. The counselor as a child-advocate does not repeat what the child is saying, but rather explains what the child is feeling. This single role of the counselor is of major significance because it has the greatest potential for effecting positive changes for the student.

Problems of Elementary Guidance Programs

Lack of Staff Orientation

Developmental guidance at the elementary level contrasts sharply with the traditional guidance and counseling role which has been entrenched for many years at the secondary level. Although most elementary guidance concepts have been in the forefront of the educational vanguard for at least 10 years, many professionals still cling to these more traditional viewpoints. Workshops and training in developmental guidance, affective education, value clarification, and humanistic education all point to a new counselor role. However, if the counselor's role in the elementary school is not established early, many counselors become misunderstood catch-alls for a vast array of odd jobs.

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School boards, superintendents, and principals do not always understand the role of the elementary counselor and the concepts of developmental guidance. For example, one large metropolitan school district currently has 67 counselors serving the district's 177 elementary schools. Because of limited funding for personnel, the district developed a formula to determine which elementary schools would receive counselors. This formula considered local data on such school problems as low student achievement, poor attendance, violence, and vandalism. Once these data were compiled, schools were ranked according to need, and the most needy schools were assigned counselors. These trouble-shooting counselors were employed to quell disasters rather than to promote disaster prevention through developmental programming. Counselors who produced a noticeable constructive impact in these problem areas eventually caused their school to be eliminated from the needs list. Subsequently, many counselor units were transferred annually to more needy schools. Although such a policy may help to put out urgent fires and may provide more equitable counseling services, it does not reflect a clear commitment on the part of the administration to the developmental aspects of elementary guidance. Since this situation exists in one of the largest school districts in the nation, it would stand to reason that it may be occurring elsewhere.

Another problem which faces counselors is misunderstanding of the counselor's function by the principal. Some counselors, for example, are only utilized as psychometrists. In many cases counselors are seen as administrative assistants. They serve as unofficial vice-principals and are even drawn into disciplinary activities. Although most counselors are eager to become equally involved in faculty responsibilities, such duties as bus duty or monitoring the lunchroom or hallways often place the counselor in the role of disciplinarian. It is true that sometimes a crisis situation requires a counselor to substitute for a teacher for a few hours. However, some schools make it a regular practice to use the counselor as a handy substitute.

Principals, teachers, exceptional student personnel, school psychologists, social workers, career specialists, and curriculum coordinators all need specific orientation in understanding the elementary counselor's role and how it relates to their work. Counselors who assume that all educators are clear on this subject generally encounter needless faculty misunderstanding and resistance. First impressions are lasting ones. If this first impression is to produce vital faculty support, it is necessary that the counselor's role be clearly articulated at the outset.

Need for Special Training Programs

Until recently, counselor training was geared toward the secondary level. As elementary guidance has emerged over the last few years, it has brought with it a growing need for specialized training and certification. Most counselor educators have a secondary background. Many prefer to confine training to this secondary area where they feel most comfortable. Due to the variance of counselor roles in elementary and secondary schools, a huge gap thus exists in training personnel for these vastly different functions. Most elementary counselors today must seek needed training through inservice programs in order to fill such gaps.

Elementary counselor training should incorporate courses which stress consultant skills. Emphasis also needs to be placed on the counselor's role in early identification of student exceptionalities. An area which has received somewhat more attention in the past few years is group counseling. However, more emphasis needs to be given to helping counselors acquire skills in working effectively with children's groups, such as conducting a "Magic Circle."

Problems are also apparent in certification of counselors. Presently state certification agencies tend to offer K-12 certification for counselors with degrees in guidance. Little attention is given to areas of specialization (i.e., elementary, middle school, and high school) within this broad realm. Even more shocking is the fact that some school districts assign elementary guidance responsibilities to personnel having no certification in guidance at any level. Such practices always tarnish elementary guidance.

High Counselor/Student Ratios

When class size diminishes, the classroom teacher's efficiency increases. Each child receives more direct attention and thus the learning process is expedited. Although elementary guidance is directed toward helping all students maximize their individual potential, it can effect little impact if spread too thin. Just as increased teacher efficiency is related to decreased class size, so the counselor is most effective as the student/counselor ratio diminishes.

Most school boards and administrations, however, are faced with meeting student needs as economically as possible. This usually means that elementary guidance counselors are spread thinly throughout the system. A counselor can be fairly effective at a 1/500 ratio; however, when this ratio extends to 1/1000 or 1/1,500, efficiency is severely curtailed. Larger numbers of students demand a shift of function from direct counselor services to consulting services. A counselor serving more than one school often faces a Jekyll and Hyde existence in trying to work in several schools with an array of differing needs. Some counselors are assigned K-12 responsibilities. In such situations elementary needs often appear to take a back seat to secondary demands.

Lack of Visibility and Communication

Elementary guidance programs have flourished in areas where strong public relations programs exist. The effective counselor is also an enthusiastic salesperson who utilizes every available avenue of communication to promote understanding and support. Because most elementary guidance programs are set up as temporary experimental innovations, the personnel involved must provide substantial feedback concerning the program's impact. Effective counselors today have become experts in public relations for reasons of survival.

It is also important to note, however, that even in areas where such guidance programs appear to have strong roots within the school system, ongoing communication by the counselor is still essential. The counselor who is in touch with all school personnel daily can improve understanding among the faculty through positive interaction and support. The counselor is in a key position to maintain strong channels of communication between the school and the home as well. By utilizing community resources within the school, the counselor can also foster community support. Politicians, public officials, university staff, and administrators are often in positions to offer meaningful contributions to the total school program. The alert counselor is ever mindful of people in such positions, and by working to promote positive public relations can gain many extras which expand and improve the quality of education.

Inadequate Facilities

Lack of proper counseling facilities mainly is due to the fact that most schools in use today were built before elementary guidance came into being. Thus, the counselor, as the new member on the elementary school faculty, commonly works out of facilities that are often makeshift afterthoughts (i.e., broom closets, corners in the library, shared office space with administrators or other student services staff). To avoid entanglement in administrative duties, it is important that the counselor be housed in an area separate from the office but still accessible to clients. For one-to-one counseling, privacy is paramount. The counselor cannot project a feeling of confidentiality if he/she is stationed in a fish bowl. An adequate group meeting area is also necessary.

Unrealistic Expectations

It is important that counselors not be perceived by faculty and staff as "overnight miracle workers." Because a child visits a counselor, the teacher may expect that the problem has been cured. Unfortunately, it is not that easy to alter problems that may have taken years to develop.

Many counselors may be flattered and become trapped by the feeling that they should fulfill this role of miracle worker. This can only lead ultimately to personal disillusionment and program disaster. In order to develop a workable, productive program, the counselor must consider time constraints, personnel limitations, and student ratios. Establishing priorities and clear objectives which are articulated to the entire staff will help to avoid disillusionment and develop realistic expectations for achievements.

Lack of Research

Sound research concerning the effectiveness of elementary guidance programs is glaringly absent at this time. At best, what research there is tends to be sketchy and limited in scope. Evidence that substantiates the positive impact of elementary guidance is urgently needed to create and sustain a basis for legislation and local support that will provide funding in this area. More comprehensive studies are needed to determine the short- and long-range impact of elementary guidance on students. State departments and colleges and universities must become more active in promoting research at local levels concerning elementary guidance. There is little being done at the national level since there is no office of guidance within the Federal structure. It is each counselor's responsibility to initiate studies which assess school needs, determine the most effective kind of programs and/or interventions, and evaluate results. In this way counselors can provide systematic and relevant direction for the overall school program.

Future Directions

Elementary guidance stands at a crossroads today with an uncertain future. Viewed from one aspect, we might speculate that its growth may be diminished by the current economy and "back to the basics" trend. Observed in a more positive light, the favorable reception to elementary counselors might lead us to hope that in time every school faculty will have an elementary counselor as part of its staff.

In order for elementary counselors to multiply, additional revenues will need to be added to local school district funds. State and Federal legislation can give elementary counselors the impetus needed in these troubled times. Staffing the nation's elementary schools with counselors is a gigantic task, but much can be accomplished in combining the financial resources of local districts with state and Federal funds. No one of these sources is able to shoulder the total responsibility for complete program funding.

Securing and maintaining legislative funding will require more visibility for elementary counselors. Public relations will become an integral part of all successful programs. In time there will be a greater understanding of the elementary counselor's role. As this increased understanding develops, there will be more demands for services. The student clientele has often been the first to support and appreciate elementary guidance services. As trust and confidence increase, however, parents and teachers will begin to avail themselves more and more of the counselor's unique contributions.

Counselors, in turn, will develop more skills in the consultant/coordinator aspects of their role. In the elementary school a counselor will often be able to accomplish more in a shorter period by working with the significant adults in a child's life. It is also easy to envision the counselor as the inservice training leader of the faculty who assists them in understanding group dynamics and interaction.

In the future, guidance will be more closely tied to curriculum. With today's stress on "back to the basics" and the counselor's involvement with the exceptional student program, counselors are becoming an integral part of the learning process rather than separate from it. The counselor will be providing input on how children learn, rather than on what they learn. This will necessitate a change in counselor education programs. The elementary counselor will need to become more knowledgeable in child development and learning theory, learning disabilities and other exceptionalities, and program evaluation and accountability. The counselor will be in a key position to offer assistance and support to the classroom teacher who is sometimes operating under extreme pessimism, a negative image, and a barrage of public demands. Not only will the counselor serve as a child-advocate, but also as a teacher and parent-advocate, rendering support in troubled times. This, in turn, will enhance learning for the child.

Counselors will demonstrate and model interpersonal skills to parents, teachers, and students. They will spread these skills throughout the school rather than being the sole dispenser of them. Their success will depend on how skillful they are in giving others the talents of their trade.

A counselor at the elementary level who operates in this manner will affect the secondary counselor role. Children who are accustomed to knowing and interacting with the elementary counselor will seek out the secondary counselor. Often the secondary counselor has been strapped with placement and paper work. Students will come to the junior high school expecting to be involved in interpersonal relations and will make more demands on the secondary counselor. Hence, hopefully, the secondary counselor's role will change and become more student-oriented rather than administrative.

The growth of elementary programs and the increase in counselor numbers will require more supervision. In the larger school districts a person will need to have the responsibility of supervising only elementary counselors. In smaller school districts one person will need to have K-12 supervisory responsibilities. State Departments of Education will need to employ supervisors or consultants to coordinate emerging guidance programs at the elementary level, to supervise closely both programs and personnel, and to organize and coordinate inservice training for counselors.

Most counselor education programs presently rely on a core curriculum of required courses for all counselors. Few counselor educators have had elementary counseling experience; the majority have a background in secondary guidance or administration. This will not be the case in the future. Counselor education programs will offer more courses specifically designed for elementary counselors. Programs will become more child-oriented and comprehensive in scope. Many states may require special certification or competencies for elementary counselors.

Recommendations

Elementary guidance programs are here to stay and have been in existence long enough to suggest recommendations for those involved with their development.

For Counselors

1. Counselors must realize that a broad, inclusive, and successful guidance program must belong to, develop from the needs of, and be designed to serve the school and community. They must avoid the feeling that they have sole ownership of it.

2. Services must be made available not only to the child but also to the significant adults in his/her life. This will dictate counselor training in consultation skills.

3. Counselors have responsibility for seeing that the guidance program is tied closely to curriculum. How children learn is directly related to their emotional, social, and physical development. Guidance cannot stand alone as a separate entity from the learning experience.

4. Counselors will be concerned about accountability. This will give the program direction and demonstrate its effectiveness.

5. Public relations must be an integral part of a successful program. Promoting an understanding of elementary guidance is an important role of counselors.

6. For support and direction counselors should belong to and be active in local, state, and national guidance associations.

For Supervisors--Local, State, Federal

1. Local supervisors need to hold regular inservice meetings with elementary counselors to give them support and direction.

2. Local supervisors need to be activists with administrators to keep guidance in the forefront and to present a positive guidance image to the community.

3. Local and state supervisors should encourage and monitor ongoing guidance relations programs.

4. Local and state supervisors should engage in research and evaluation of elementary guidance programs.

5. Large school districts should employ a full-time supervisor for elementary guidance in order to provide counselors needed support and direction.

6. Leadership at the state level is essential to the growth and development of elementary guidance programs. In states where there are supervisors with only elementary guidance duties, elementary counselors have made the greatest gains.

7. The U.S. Office of Education needs to assign one person to provide leadership and coordination for expanding elementary guidance programs across the nation.

8. Consideration should be given to seeking state and national funding for elementary counselors. Local funds will seldom be sufficient.

For Counselor Educators

1. In order to be effective, counselor educators need to be involved with local school systems, providing inservice training to counselors and, in some instances, actually serving as counselors in elementary schools. With these experiences, educators will be able to prepare counselors for the realities of program organization, systems, evaluation and research, learning theories, and exceptionalities.

2. Counselor education departments should examine their programs in terms of elementary counselor preparation. They should seek individuals as educators who have had elementary counseling experience.

3. State certification for elementary counselors should be explored and evaluated.

Summary

Although elementary school guidance is not a panacea to meet all the needs of school and society, it serves as a positive "close encounter of a new kind" that over time can more than pay for itself. Historically, elementary guidance programs emerged through Federal funding, and a recent survey indicates that 10,090 counselors are currently functioning in elementary schools. However, a decline is discernable--a decline that can be attributed to the state of the nation's economy as well as to a "back to the basics" emphasis in education.

Commonalities of effective elementary guidance programs include teacher support, utilization by students, administrative priority, parental support, responsiveness to school needs, provision of balanced services, endorsement of the student services team, community support, accessibility, systematic feedback, and the child-advocate role.

Some problems encountered by elementary guidance programs include lack of staff orientation, need for special training programs, high counselor/student ratios, limited visibility, inadequate facilities, unrealistic expectations, and lack of research.

Elementary guidance stands at the crossroads today. Will its growth be curtailed by the current economy or will it expand until every elementary school has a counselor on its staff? Hopefully, this encounter of a new kind is here to stay--the thrust to make comprehensive guidance services available to all students throughout their educational life.

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7 the counselor's new challenge: parent education

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THE COUNSELOR'S NEW CHALLENGE:
PARENT EDUCATION

Rasamma Nyberg

There is evidence today that too many people are parenting with a dangerous lack of knowledge and skill. The result is that many children are losing out on what ought to be an undeniable right--the right to have parents who know how to be responsible parents, parents skilled in the art of parenting. All eyes turn to the school guidance department, which, under diverse educational demands and pressures, has remained the catalyst-with-a-heart between and among school, parents, and community. Parents are now looking to school counselors who have been trained in a special kind of caring to help them with their counseling skills--listening, advising, and understanding. The time has come for the guidance department to coordinate, consolidate, support, and give dignity to a crucial new area of educational demand--that of living skills for family groups. This chapter reviews the state of the art of parenting, examines the relationship of the school counselor to training for effective parenting, and concludes with action recommendations for various professional groups that will help parents become all that they desire to be and can be.

> The children now . . . have bad manners, contempt for authority. They show disrespect for elders and love chatter in place of exercise. They no longer rise when elders enter the room. They contradict their parents, chatter before company, gobble up dainties at the table, and tyrannize over their teachers. (Socrates, 5th Century B.C., in Kerber, 1968, p. 265)

Sound familiar? This age-old problem has escalated in recent years to alarming proportions and is currently being discussed by parents from all walks of life. In April 1975 a special Senate Subcommittee to investigate juvenile delinquency published a "Report Card on Our Nation's Schools" and awarded an "A" to school violence and vandalism! The problem conditions of disruptive and defiant behavior are closely related to poor academic achievement and apathy. The result: a rapid increase in the number of substance users and abusers, truants, dropouts, rebels, ingrates, and run-aways. Who is to blame? Today mental health experts, political leaders, and law-enforcement officers are pointing accusing fingers at parents.

In today's world of social complexity and dramatic technological change, parents are faced with the responsibility of moving helpless infants from one physical and psychological stage to another, along paths of considerable ambiguity. They are expected to develop self-functioning, self-competent, and self-actualized children while trying to cope with their own ever-changing life cycles.

The term "parenting," increasingly fashionable in social and academic circles, is useful shorthand for the concept of "doing a good job as a parent." Parents are blamed and held responsible for poor parenting, but little is done about the situation. The odds are overwhelming that children denied effective parenting will be unable to compete with their peers, in school or in adult life. The antidote to ineffective parenting is, of course, training for parenting. Critics of parent education object to the term "training" since it is associated with changing the behavior of animals. They believe in the maternal and paternal instincts inherent in our forefathers, and fail to see that time moves on and environmental conditions change. A comparison of our complex, computerized, transistorized life with life in the animal world is truly ridiculous. The instinctual basics we generally hand down to our young are at best inadequate. "Let us accept without reservation that trained parents are every child's birthright and a sine qua non of our society" (Bell, 1975, p. 271). These are words of T. H. Bell, the United States Commissioner of Education in 1975, as he called on his department to establish nationwide criteria and curricula for parental training.

So in 1978 we ask, Where are the schools for parents? What job-training programs are available for this most difficult and demanding job? What knowledge and skills must parents possess to rear children today? How effective are society's institutions and systems in providing essential levels of parent education? How much of an allocation of resources is needed to remedy social problems resulting from family dysfunctioning? Who will be willing to accept the new challenge and commit themselves to helping parents help their children to maximize positive forces in their search for identity and constructive life?

One automatically looks to the profession that is "founded upon the principle of the conservation of human life and human energy based on the fact of human need" (Jones, 1951, p. 3); the profession devoted to "enhancing the personal development and psychological growth toward a socialized maturity of its clients" (Rogers, 1962, p. 428); the profession that prepares the young for the adult world and parenthood--the guidance profession. Is our guidance profession willing to climb aboard the new bandwagon? Are counselors, accustomed as they are to intervening in developmental areas, prepared to share insights and skills with their students' first interveners and first guidance counselors--their parents? With their client-centered approach, they need only to equip themselves with an eclectic, comprehensive body of content and the finesse of group methodology to accept this new challenge with enthusiasm.

Content and Nature of Parent Education

> From the moment that a mother takes a child upon her lap she teaches him. She brings nearer to his senses what nature has scattered afar over large areas and in confusion, and makes the action of receiving sense-impressions and the knowledge derived from them, easy, pleasant, and delightful to him. Pestalozzi, 1801, in Anderson, 1974, p. 66)

Brim (1959) defined parent education as an activity using educational techniques in order to effect change in parent-role performances. Croake and Glover (1977) have operationally defined parent education as the purposive learning activity of parents who are attempting to change their methods of interaction with their children for the purpose of encouraging positive behavior in their children. Parent education should not be confused with education for parenthood. The latter is geared to students who in their Home Economics or Social Studies classes learn pre-entry skills of family living, including parenthood. The former is a kind of developmental guidance for the already-parent. Hill describes this "cumulative guidance" as a "process in which the past piles into the present and the present has its effects upon the future" (1970, p.76), ever moving in concentric and spiraling life-cycles.

For the purpose of this chapter, parent education is defined as a comprehensive program based on established child development norms and major parenting approaches, presented within a theoretical framework of basic living skills for parents and their children to use as they move through their various life-cycles. The overall objective of such a program may be stated generally as the learning and implementing of a repertory of parenting skills for situational, relational, and developmental life cycles for use as preventive, immediate, and "after-the-fact" measures. More specifically, the major objectives of parent education are:

Understanding established child development norms.

Increasing awareness and knowledge of current educational and social issues as they affect parent-child relationships.

Understanding the concepts and strategies contained in the major parenting approaches and selecting the ones that best suit the parents' needs, realizing that there is no "one and only" best method for effective parenting.

Recognizing and applying alternative methods of discipline and control.

Understanding and applying conflict resolution and conflict management techniques.

Increasing self-awareness and changing parenting style; personal growth.

Improving communications, verbal and nonverbal, with all family members; interpersonal growth.

The scope and complexity of the content of parent education gleaned from scanning the projected outcomes can appear overwhelming to the educational designers of such a program. However, the above objectives may be neatly packaged into three content areas: Child Development Norms, Major Parenting Approaches, and Living Skills for Life Cycles. Below are thumbnail sketches of each content area.

Child Development Norms

The sources of information for child development norms are the research centers concerned with experimental studies, and the clinical specialties represented by psychoanalysis, psychiatry, and clinical psychology. Child development norms as content for parent education fall into three basic categories: (1) emotional development as found in the works of Freud, Sullivan, and Erikson; (2) self-concept and social behavior development as detailed by Gesell and Ilg; and (3) mental development from the well-known theories of Piaget (Brim, 1959).

It is important to present these norms as general phases and guidelines to assist parents to understand growth processes, not as rigid boundaries of normality. Parents need to be assured that each child develops at his/her own rate, in his/her own time and according to his/her own capacity for growth. This can be an anxiety-laden area, and should be treated with caution.

Special mention must be made of the consecutive stages of mental development that Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget postulated--i.e., that children go through sequential stages of operational growth--sensorimotor, preconceptual, and intuitive thought; concrete operations; and formal operations. Piaget's work has had tremendous influence on educators as well as on behaviorists and humanists. It became the basis for educational innovations in curricula: justification for activity learning, self-discovery processes, and the "readiness" approach (Case, 1973).

Major Parent Education Approaches

All three child development norms have been used as the basis for child rearing methods books. Benjamin Spock (1957) and Haim Ginott (1965) were early giants who were widely read and religiously followed. Now Carl Rogers (1963) and Virginia Satir (1972) are taking the lead. "How-to-parent" books that are flooding the market today touch on every aspect of the subject and can easily confuse the consumer. Here are just a few of the current titles: *Father Power*, *A Guide for Single Parents*, *The Rational Management of Children*, *Just Wait Till You Have Children of Your Own*, *The Politics of the Family*, *What Bothers Us Most About Grown-Ups*, *Parents Are Lovers*, *Anger and the Rocking Chair*, and *Touching*. The list goes on and on. The major approaches selected for this chapter, however, are more than just "how-to" descriptions. They are proven methods based on sound theory, and they offer an instructor-training course as well as a step-by-step educational program for parents.

Parent Effectiveness Training. The P.E.T. program, a sequentially developed course based on a general theory of human relationship effectiveness, was designed by Thomas Gordon (1970), a clinical psychologist. Major concepts in the theory include humanness of parents, problem ownership, active listening, sending "I-messages," changing unacceptable behavior by changing environment, "No-Lose" method of conflict resolution, parental power, and parent attitudinal change. The P.E.T. movement started in 1962 in Pasadena, California, with a handful of parents who were seeking help. Today, Parent Effectiveness Training, Inc., has books, films, hundreds of trained instructors, and well-organized courses for university credit for all kinds of parents. A school counselor taking the full training course should be equipped to run his/her own parent groups with relative ease.

Adler-Dreikurs Institute of Human Relations. This institute has trained instructors throughout the country to run Parent Study Groups using Dreikur and Soltz's book, *Children: The Challenge* (1964), as the text. Based on Adlerian psychology, this approach to parenting comes with a leader's manual and stresses the child's place in the family constellation and its impact on life patterns; the child's mistaken goals of behavior (attention, power, revenge, and a display of inadequacy); use of natural and logical consequences instead of punitive measures; using family councils for communicating and problem-solving; and having fun together. The leader's manual is simple, direct, and can be used by a parent leader as easily as by a school counselor (Agati, 1974).

Mention must be made of Don Dinkmeyer's Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (S.T.E.P.) (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1976) as one of the many offshoots of Adlerian influence being used by some elementary school guidance counselors in Miami, Florida. This simple, 10-week course is attractively presented with colorful handbooks for parents and multi-visual aids for instructors. Dinkmeyer (1973) describes the "C-Group" or Clarification Group method as an effective way of getting the message across.

Following the cognitively-oriented views of Adler, Albert Ellis (1975) suggests that counselors use Rational Emotive Therapy to teach parents the ABC's of solving problems in personality dysfunction.

Sidney B. Simon (1977), a leading author, lecturer, and facilitator of values clarification workshops, has recently turned his attention from students to parents, and has just written the book, Helping Your Child Learn Right From Wrong. The values clarification process emphasizes basic steps to values formation. Too long have parents and teachers imposed, deposed, or exposed values by moralizing, modeling, or manipulating. Simon outlines the valuing process thus: choosing from alternatives, choosing after examining the consequences of each alternative, choosing freely, cherishing and prizing our choice, publicly affirming and acknowledging our choice, acting, and acting consistently so that the behavior becomes a pattern in our life. He explains the areas of values confusions, conflicts and needs, and describes several practical strategies for the entire family to do together.

The "I am lovable and capable" concept underlies all strategies. This movement mandates that there be no "put-downs" of self or others. The strength of the values clarification movement lies in the almost game-like strategy skills training that leads to critical thinking, thoughtful decision-making, and the building of family togetherness.

Simon's books, Caring, Feeling, Touching (1976), Meeting Yourself Halfway (1974), and Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students (1972) can be used as supplementary material. Although these books are not written in lesson-plan form, they are simple enough for parent groups to use even without a professional leader. However, the book Helping Your Child Learn Right From Wrong should not be used as a source for parlor games. The exercises require theoretical explanations and processing before and after the family's participation.

Reality Therapy. Taking the sting out of therapeutic or psychiatric treatment, William Glasser (1970) presents a simple, straightforward approach to changing children's behavior based on the two human needs of relatedness and respect. He stresses that his method of rearing, disciplining, and guiding children will be effective only if both the helper and the helpee are willing to take responsibility for their own behavior and mental health. Critical components are caring involvement on the part of the helper and a trusting attitude on the part of the helpee.

Glasser teaches parents to recognize the importance of short periods of intensive training (therapy) to help children learn to change inappropriate behaviors. He suggests simple steps in Reality Therapy:

1. Make friends with your child.
2. Ask, "What are you doing now?", never "Why?"
3. Ask, "Is it helping you?"
4. Help the child make a plan to do better.
5. Get a commitment--help child activate his/her plan.
6. Don't accept excuses.
7. Don't punish, but don't interfere with reasonable consequences.
8. Never give up! With consistency and the concerted efforts of all involved, a "negatively addicted child" can become a "positively addicted person."

Transactional Analysis. This international movement, using highly technical language in its original presentation by Eric Berne (1961) and Thomas Harris (1969), has recently been simplified for children by Freed (1973) and for general use by James and Jongeward (1971). Born To Win (James & Jongeward, 1971) is especially appropriate for parent groups, as the chapter-by-chapter presentations contain excercises, readings, and general topics for discussion that apply to parents. The TA group process is clarified and simplified, and the planned activities provide opportunities for families to gain experience with self-contracts, goal-setting procedures, and simple analysis of their everyday transactions. The theoretical framework is based on concepts dealing with ego-states, strokes, game-playing, diagrammed analysis of interactions, and life-scripts. The four psychological positions--I'm O.K., you're O.K.; I'm O.K., you're not O.K.; I'm not O.K., you're O.K.; I'm not O.K., you're not O.K.--are believed to permeate our attitudes to life and its worth. The assumption is that with heightened awareness of our positions, our interactions, and our game-playing tendencies, we can learn to change our behaviors so that as we live out our own life-scripts we become winners, not losers. As parents learn these techniques, they can teach their children to become the "princes" and "princesses" they were meant to be.

Behavior Modification. This technique was derived from research with animal learning and is now applied to humans. Proponents of the theory say that it is consistent with the American free enterprise system, in which we receive according to our performance. Principles of reward and nonreward for specific behaviors are taught to parents in a systematic way. Concepts of the movement include conditioning; immediate scheduling of reinforcement; tangible, nontangible, and symbolic reinforcers; negative reinforcers; removal of stimulus; ignoring and true punishment; "time-out" rooms; strategic retreats; successive approximations; and "chaining" (Guillon, 1976). Simply stated, the cardinal rule in setting up a behavior modification program in the home is: "If they want it, they must pay for it; if they don't want it, you must pay them for it." Most humanistic educators concur that, applied skillfully, behavior modification produces positive results in children who are damaged--physically, emotionally, or mentally.

The concepts may be used by parents who wish to break bad habits or addictions in their children. The ultimate aim is to teach children to manage their own behavior. Recently, behavioral counselors have emphasized covert conditioning--"turning the inside out" to produce overt behavior change (Yager, 1975). Their techniques are: (1) relaxation training to reduce anxiety in everyday life situations (Goldfried, 1973); (2) desensitization of anxiety situations by thinking, "Relax!"; (3) thought-stopping, involving the self-introduction of an imagined shout of the command, "Stop!"; (4) covert sensitization--use of imagery-induced noxious aversions to change behavior, e.g., overeating; and (5) assertive training involving the honest and direct action of standing up for one's rights.

Both parents and children can learn the self-management skills of recording behaviors and giving self-rewards in order to internalize self-control.

Education is a process by which the individual changes. New insights learned from the alternative parenting approaches and strategies call for a deep awareness of self and others in the family circle. The concept of goal setting to improve life styles is a common theme in all of the movements and presents the opportunity to experience an exciting lifelong agenda. The curriculum has its setting in life-cycles, and the textbooks are living experiences. As personal growth occurs for the parent receiving education, other family members become involved and are deeply affected. This change in family dynamics calls for gentle sharing, understanding, and a special kind of caring. Many families have broken under the powerful and disturbing impact of having a so-called enlightened member change dramatically in personal growth, leaving behind bewildered and alienated family members. To insure parallel personal and interpersonal growth, it is vital that the education and training occur in a theoretical framework that includes all family members--where living skills are shared and mutually taught for common or varying life-cycles.

Living Skills for Family Life Cycles--A Parent Education Curriculum Design

Life-cycles. Educators are calling for a "back-to-basics" curriculum for children with heavy emphasis on reading, writing, computing, and comprehending, accompanied by strict discipline. Society is calling for a "forward-to-basics" movement for parents and their children, adding basic skills in living to the three R's, with heavy doses of "caring, feeling, and touching" (Simon, 1976, p. 7).

The life-cycles that one moves through in space and time extend from micro-events, e.g., getting dressed for school, to macro-phases, e.g., puberty and parenthood. They are experienced from birth to death in varying intensity and overlap one another. They fall into three categories: situational, relational, and developmental. Each of the various [illegible]onents within the three categories requires specific living skills. They are listed below.

Situational

Entering, Pre-entering, Re-entering
Surviving
Coping
Reviewing and Maintaining
Celebrating
Exiting

Relational

Interacting
Encountering
Confronting

Developmental

Receiving
Integrating
Producing
Exploring
Creating

Parents and their children who are experiencing difficulty in one or more of these areas need help. The first step is an initial diagnostic session with parents to identify priority areas and common problems, e.g., first day of school (Situational category--survival skills needed for both parent and child). Parents then design their own curriculum for their families and create their own agenda. The facilitator, drawing from the major approaches in parenting described earlier, is able to suggest several alternative skills from which parents may choose. Several skills can be rehearsed at the parenting sessions before the parents try them out at home.

An important part of this design is the feedback report that parents bring back to subsequent sessions on their successes or failures in attempting to implement the skills. The skills that are mastered can then be transferred to other situations or relations, re-tried, and refined. Home becomes the life-lab where these new skills can be tried out with gentleness, trust, and dignity. The 14 skills listed above can serve as the outline for a parenting curriculum design.

Major relevant issues. Current, relevant, and important issues as they relate to parent and child must be part of the design. Factual knowledge about sociological issues such as child abuse (physical, emotional, psychological, and sexual), substance abuse, sex-education, the women's movement, and ethnic differences should be updated and imparted to parents. Educational issues such as literacy testing, pupil progression plans, curricular changes, school organizations, and new career opportunities may be the issues closest to parents' hearts. Many parent education groups have been organized around these issues, for they constitute natural areas of values conflicts and confusions facing parents.

Methodology and Growth Groups

The most effective way to disseminate information and to reach as many parents as possible is without question some form of group process. Considerable confusion exists in the terminology concerning group work. Prospective participants need to know what to expect when they elect to invest in the group approach (Jones, 1972). The following descriptions of various group processes are presented to help clarify the types of growth groups that were spin-offs from the group dynamics movement.

Group Guidance

This general term is used to describe a process organized to prevent the development of problems. Providing accurate information which will improve understanding of self and others and help clients make more appropriate plans and life decisions is the direct emphasis, whereas attitude change frequently is an indirect goal. A variety of group approaches is used to encourage interaction (Gazda, 1971).

Group Counseling

This approach is distinguished from any other group technique by its emphasis on effective planning. The counseling group's major objective is helping people to manage their lives more effectively. Group counseling is both prevention- and remediation-oriented. The settings are usually educational. The time orientation is generally present and future. Persons talk through normal development problems, but the oft-recurring question is, "Where do we go from here?" Gazda (1967) defined group counseling thus:

> Group counseling is a dynamic interpersonal process focusing on conscious thought and behavior and involving the therapy functions of permissiveness, orientation to reality, catharsis, acceptance and support. (p. 8)

Group Psychotherapy

The term "Group Psychotherapy," coined by J. L. Moreno (1962), generally means "to treat people in groups" (p. 263). Brammer and Shostrom (1960) add these additional descriptions to the definition: reconstructive depth analysis; focus on the unconscious; emphasis on neuroses, or other severe emotional problems; and long-term duration. The setting is usually in clinics, hospitals, or mental health centers. The treatment is mostly remedial.

T-Groups or Training Groups

The major objectives of T-Groups are awareness and skill-building in interpersonal relations. The specific goals in terms of awareness are the participant's "feeling" experience, his/her reactions to and relationships with other people, and understanding of how groups operate. In terms of skills, the objectives are to improve listening skills, to understand with empathy, to express feelings, and to give effective feedback. The goals also include understanding group process, i.e., becoming more cognizant of trends, unacknowledged relations and communications, functional roles, and so on. In terms of time orientation, the T-group is distinguished from other group processes by a rather rigid adherence to the "here and now." There is no history-taking, no story-telling, and no future-planning activity. The entire energy of the group is focused on the immediate present, trying to find that reality and discussing it openly with others.

The Human Potential Movement

Only very recently making its appearance, this movement has multiple and diverse origins but is most closely related to the efforts of humanistic psychologists, e.g., Carl Rogers, Abraham

Maslow, Jack Gibbs, and William Schultz. Jones (1972) describes four streams of activity that now are taking place in this movement:

1. Facilitation of sensory awakening and awareness, self-expression, and genuine communication with adult groups, parents, couples, women.

2. Group approaches in education, departing from teacher-centered, highly structured classroom interaction.

3. Group work among clinical populations by accelerating treatment of persons who need interpersonal assistance to develop effective coping.

4. An infusion of all these activities into organizational development and into working with people within work settings.

Among the popular strategies that are being used in all of the above groups are the following: energizers, dyadic encounters, listening trios, matched pairs, wagon wheels, the fish bowl, small/large group discussions, lecturettes, structured interviews, brainstorming, debriefing, processing, feedback, self/group contracts, silence, empty chair technique, role-playing, psycho-drama, guided phantasy, meditation, total immersion labs, simulation games, strength bombardment--and the list goes on, and will go on as new strategies become known.

It is important for the parent--the new consumer of groups--to have a clear sense of what the learning goals of the group are.

The techniques used in the groups are nothing but means toward varying ends, depending on the facilitator and the type of needs the group identifies.

The Parent Education Group

This emergent group must of necessity select judiciously from all of the above to meet its special ends. However, in view of its unique clientele--a widely divergent group of people whose only eligibility is parenthood--a new genre may well develop with specific characteristics. As suggested by Slavson (1971), the group itself as a new family can serve as a model for the participant's family. The leader can be the responsible parent figure, modeling tolerance, acceptance, and understanding, permitting free expression, and encouraging selfhood in each member; fellow members can model caring sibling behavior with no "put-downs," baiting, or manipulating. The group space can be the laboratory for rehearsing active listening or constructive confronting skills before members strive to emulate these back home.

The group structure provides for parents an arena of support, reinforcement, and strength--the comfort of knowing that they are not alone. Parents need some "dilution therapy" as they desire information about how their own feelings and behavior compare with the average. This helps to reduce self-inflicted severe criticism and guilt.

The nature of the group will naturally vary with group needs. A variety of needs assessments should be conducted in and around the school community several times during the year in order to keep in touch with the pulse of changing problem areas and clientele. In some school districts, "sites councils" (Carey, 1977) composed of parents, community members and school personnel are already engaging in identifying specific parent needs and suggesting effective ways to deliver services according to priorities.

Evaluation Methods

Evaluation of the learning of factual information and fundamental content is a relatively simple task when compared with assessing attitudinal and behavioral changes. The task of evaluating outcomes from parent education is further complicated in that the behavioral changes of the parent affect the entire family constellation. The changes are often anxiety-laden, deep rooted, and interrelated with past associations. Several pre- and post-forms can be developed to assist achievement of specific objectives, but the evaluation should be kept simple, direct, and relevant. To test the reality of attitude change and skill acquisition, a few evaluation methods are suggested below:

Observational record of parent attendance, involvement, and participation.

Completion of "I learned that I..." statements at the end of each parenting session by parents.

Examination of results of self-contracts and group-contracts.

Self-reports. Written daily or weekly logs kept by participants and their family members, recording feelings, attitudes, changes, and skills implementation. Weekly taped recordings for parents who cannot read or write. Verbal reports.

Checklist of all the living skills learned, frequency of application, and nature of results.

Self-validation and validation of family members at the beginning, middle, and end of series.

Rap sessions with family members present, before and after series.

Strength bombardment by group members noting attitudinal changes in participant.

Pre- and post-assessment of knowledge of major parenting approaches and child development norms.

Other parent-made assessments.

Assessments made by family members.

Desired Characteristics of the Counselor as Parent Educator

To accept this new challenge of parent education with confidence and enthusiasm, the counselor must have knowledge of the content areas described and be in tune with current social, psychological, and educational issues. He/she must possess an eclectic approach, with the ability to highlight relevant concepts and skills from parenting models. Knowledge and skillful use of a variety of methods is essential for effective group facilitation. Both content and methodology can be mastered with course work and training. The desired characteristics of the counselor as a role-model/nurturing parent figure, however, are not so easily learned from courses; they are learned more from supervised field placement, observing a model, and actual experience in group work with parents. The professional behavior expected for facilitators of parent gruops calls for the development of a unique leadership style including the following:

Empathic understanding, understanding from an internal frame of reference (Patterson, 1966).

Nonpossessive caring and warmth for clients as separate persons (Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), similar to Rogers' unconditional positive regard. The leader needs to be able to communicate a trust in others while maintaining his/her own integrity (Rogers, 1951).

Genuineness and authenticity, the ability to be freely and deeply oneself without a facade, a transparent genuineness (Jourard, 1964). This does not mean extensive self-disclosure, but rather a free volunteering of personal ideas, attitudes, and experiences which reveal oneself to others as a congruent individual.

Concreteness or specificity, the ability to deal with specific feelings, experiences and behavior, the avoidance of generalizations, abstractions, and of labeling, classifying, or couching terms in "educationese."

A "life-is-worth-living" outlook, a positive, enthusiastic response to life that is akin to negotiating the experiences of daily living with the vibrancy of celebration. The counselor must of necessity be operating from a sense of decency and dignity in his/her own home and career in order to respond with verve to life's peak experiences.

Anticipatory judgment, the ability to react appropriately to members' remarks; avoidance of anxiety-laden topics; awareness of activating latent feelings and knowing how to deal with them or having the candor to admit the inability to do so.

All in all, the parent educator needs to be a nourishing rather than a toxic person, able to grow, and positively engaged in working on his/her own life and parenting style.

Counselor Actions

No one person, whether school counselor, mental health worker, or group trainer, can be all of the above. School counselors may choose to adopt one or a combination of several of the following to match their own leadership style:

Become thoroughly trained and specialize in one parenting model such as P.E.T., S.T.E.P., or T.A., and offer only that approach to parents.

Team with another member/s of the pupil personnel services staff (prevention counselors, human relations specialists, school psychologists, other guidance counselors) and co-facilitate a parenting course.

Compile a list of community resource personnel from the mental health department, medical associations, or local university faculty, and invite a different guest facilitator for each session. This is similar to the Family Impact Model as described by Ira Gordon (1977).

Share the power with parents and learn while teaching. Have parents take turns being responsible for parts of each agenda with book reviews, presentations of relevant issues, panel discussions, or real life experiences. Parents can be trained as functional professionals in a setting with which they are familiar (Zarski, 1977).

Use a film series on parent education as weekly motivators.

Use the Slavson (1971) model of playing the gate-keeper role only (prohibiting physical or emotional hurt) allowing the group to be in charge of discussing, advising, and solving problems, intervening only when absolutely necessary with provocative questions or alternative solutions.

Form a special group of parents of students with special problems. Meet with students separately and their parents separately for several sessions and then bring them together for joint sessions. Deal only with areas of desired change, putting the responsibility for behavior change on students and showing parents their role of understanding and assisting in behavior change.

Set up an attractive parents' center in the school or community, complete with a lending library of parenting materials, books, films, and magazines. Have available educational toys and books for toddlers who might accompany their parents. The center could be kept open all day and evenings as a place for parents to browse and meet other parents. These informal rap sessions could be gently modified to regular sharing of parenting skills (Edmister, 1977).

Training Counselors as Parent Educators

As parent education is not currently a clear-cut and separate profession, training is limited to specific approaches conducted by proponents of various models in established training centers. The Adler-Dreikurs Institute, P.E.T., Inc., T.A. Centers, and Glasser offer separate instructor training and certificates on completion of training. Training in other approaches may be obtained by attending lectures, seminars, workshops or conferences conducted by leading authorities in the field. Some Colleges of Education are beginning to offer family therapy and group counseling as credit courses in their guidance departments. Training in methodology and specifically in group dynamics may be obtained from University Associates, La Jolla, California; National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine; or Explorations Institute, Berkeley, California. Several regional workshops conducted by trained facilitators from these centers are held throughout the country during each year.

Marguerite R. Carroll (1974) in a recent editorial noted:

> There is hardly a counselor who has not experienced some aspect of sensitivity training, growth groups, group counseling, encounter groups, T-groups and the like. They have professional enlightenment as a result of experiencing groups in action, yet very few counselors have actually endeavored to experiment, practice or model the process in their own work setting. (p. 86)

It is not that counselors do not want to conduct student or parent groups--most find themselves inundated by the many noncounseling tasks required of them. Counselors have been used as substitute teachers, remedial tutors, lunch and bus monitors, "hall-sweepers," security guards, visiting teachers, and field trip chaperones. Some have become accustomed to their routine and do not wish to change. Others do not feel equipped to work with adults; they feel more comfortable with students. Some are "singles" or childless and don't feel that they can be effective without having had the parenting experience. Some, going through marital difficulties themselves, are unable to deal with emotional areas so close to home.

Action Recommendations for the Future

It is vital that the program planning, management, and implementation of parent education be viewed as a process providing support, structure, order, and coordination of activities at various levels. In educational settings the levels are: top management--the Superintendent of Schools and his/her offices; middle management--the building principal and his/her assistants; component management--directors of guidance (Gibson, 1973). These management teams receive policy guidelines from the Federal and State Offices/Departments of Education. They are responsible for the delivery of services at the local school level and the effective functioning of the guidance team.

For Offices of Education

It is recommended:

That persons at this level recognize parent education as a valid component for inclusion in the guidance and personnel services department and support it with funds for training and implementation.

That they need to continue to expand the aid provided under the Education Professional Development Act of 1970 in the form of major grants to universities. This legislation was enacted for the purpose of preparing educational personnel to develop and train a "new kind of professional" (op. cit., p. 46)--one who is able to serve the parent client as well as the student client.

That a White House Conference on Parent Education (1932) become an annual event to highlight policy development and program evaluation.

For State Supervisors of Guidance

It is recommended:

That state supervisors of guidance recognize and provide for the inclusion of parent education in the certification requirements for guidance.

That, as agents of the profession, they consider lobbying at Federal and state levels for professional and financial support.

That they consider the systems approach in designing overall models to represent the anticipated program. Springer (1967) defines the systems approach as a "rational method of using a given set of resources to produce a system capable of achieving a given set of objectives" (p. 56).

That they include state legislators, counselor educators, members of management teams, school counselors, and parents in the initial stages of planning.

That these models be "global," as broad and encompassing as possible, with scope for flexible designing within local school districts.

That these models include a role-redefinition of the guidance team to include the role of parent educator whenever appropriate, and that this inclusion be optional rather than mandated.

For Counselor Educators

At the university level it is recommended:

That counselor educators collaborate with state supervisors to design and offer a unified, consolidated training program in parent education, methodology, and evaluation.

That these core courses constitute a valid addition to the counselor certificate.

That preservice and inservice courses for credit be offered at times when counselors can take advantage of them.

For Management Teams

It is recommended:

That top management teams advise the local school board of the systems approach to parent education and seek support for the implementation of same.

That they provide visible and vocal support to the program while developing district-wide policy.

That they give school administrators the option to design, implement, and supervise parent education programs according to their individual needs.

For Middle Management and Component Management

It is recommended:

That school principals and guidance directors take responsibility for designing parent education programs.

That they carefully select suitable personnel for training and make provisions for the training.

That they be responsible for problem identification according to the community characteristics (socioeconomic level, ethnic composition, educational background, age) of significant subcultures within the school community.

That they provide this input to program designers and assist counselors in forming various parent groups accordingly.

That, with directors of guidance, they be responsible for the control of and communications among various components to insure the highest quality in the services delivered.

That they provide the Guidance Team with the following:

- means of publicizing the program
- a flexible schedule to meet working parents' needs
- release from some previous duties, providing time for new ones

"a comfortable atmosphere within the school" (Schmerber, 1974, p. 139) designated as the parent room
sufficient secretarial assistance
an added supplement such as the ones that club sponsors and athletic coaches receive for overtime work
adequate supply of materials and equipment
freedom and opportunities to reach parents in creative ways

For Counselors

It is recommended:

That school counselors trained as the "new professionals" (Gibson, 1973, p.46) seek to be recognized as valid parent educators by adding such a title to their certificates.

That they establish a network on local, state, and national levels to strengthen, update, and reinforce their professional efforts.

That they request additional pay for added responsibilities.

That they seek assistance in forming parent groups; that parents and administrators be involved in this process; that they use caution in making decisions about the size and nature of the group; that they consider grouping parents according to common needs, problems, or children's ages.

That they establish a steering committee of parents to assist in all levels of implementing the program.

That, if needed, they be willing to go off-campus to meet with parents who cannot or will not come to the school.

That they take advantage of mass media to reach parents through a series of regular TV or radio shows.

That parenting sessions be offered at times convenient to parents; that they be kept short, sequential, and consecutive; that a series consist of not more than 10 or 15 sessions; that schedules for the series be carefully planned with parents and school personnel to avoid "lost" days--days before holidays, days too close to opening or closing of school terms.

Summary

This chapter is an attempt to bring Parent Education to the forefront as a new imperative for guidance and a new challenge for the school counselor. Current strategies and approaches now in use and the training for them have been described. The group facilitator style most appropriate for parent group process has been explored. Now counselors themselves, along with state supervisors, guidance directors, and counselor educators, are faced with the exciting prospect of effecting change.

Change is a sign of growth and progress. Departure from the traditional and implementation of innovations takes courage and calls for the unified efforts of everyone in the school community. The communications network regarding new action needs to be open and flowing so that all who will be involved are not only kept aware of new developments but feel a sense of ownership in them. Parents need to be actively involved from the beginning in designing their living skills curriculum, for the agenda is truly theirs.

Whereas school counseling historically has focused on preparing students for adulthood and parenthood in the future, school counseling today is being called upon to deal with adulthood and parenthood in the here and now.

Parent education can be a significant step in making our world what we would wish it to be. Parent education is not preparation for life--it is life itself.

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8 at the roots of counseling minorities: a need for cross-cultural programming

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AT THE ROOTS OF COUNSELING MINORITIES: A NEED FOR CROSS-CULTURAL PROGRAMMING

Robert L. Clayton

This chapter begins with an explanation of the importance of minority counseling. It advocates use of the term "cross-cultural" (instead of "racial/ethnic") counseling, and presents some approaches currently used to counsel various ethnic groups. The author then describes four ongoing programs and identifies some major resources, including some that are found in most communities, which can be helpful to persons who are engaged in cross-cultural counseling. Recommendations for action are then offered for various professional guidance personnel "where change can make a difference."

"I have been counseling students in an integrated school for nearly ten years and I don't see Black or Brown or Red or Yellow or White--I see students."

That statement has probably been made by many counselors. America is moving more and more into an integrated posture in education. Segregation and segregated schools, as legal situations and entities, have become a thing of the past since the Supreme Court Decision of 1954, Brown vs. The Board of Education. Since that time, a whole generation of students, from kindergarten through high school graduation, has marched across the stage of American education. Numerous graduates have also received degrees in counseling. The mood of Segregation has given over to the mood of Integration. All people, all students, all teachers, all educators, all counselors, and all citizens are working toward a future with the dream of equality for all. So why talk about counseling minorities? Why bring racially identifiable individuals to the forefront if integration is our goal? Why continue terms and phrases from a now past era? Why highlight differing cultural backgrounds? Why encourage racial/ethnic designations? Why have race distinctions anywhere in the integrated school setting? Why have segregationist language in an integrated society?

"I see my students as students, and I counsel all students using the counseling tools and techniques I have acquired."

Like apple pie and soda pop, the statements quoted represent the ideal, the soul, of our living experiences and the hope of our futures. Yet, one should step aside from center stage and examine the initial statement and the questions that were posed. It is important to the future of this nation that we carefully scrutinize our total educational approach to minorities and the role and responsibility of counseling in the educational process.

To say, "I see students as students, and not as Black, Brown, Red, White, or Yellow," is good for some human relations workshop settings--but it is not reality. It is impossible to look at students seated in front of you and see some mono-human entity fashioned into a unitary blob called "The Student." The student is a person. The student is male or female. The student is Black, Brown, Red, White, or Yellow. If one fails to distinguish these personal characteristics, then one is guilty of ethnocentrism, one is guilty of "velvet racism," and one is guilty of cultural blindness.

Knowledge of how to counsel minority students is needed more in an integrated setting than it was needed in the previous segregated setting. The segregated setting had a built-in mechanism for counseling minority students. Minority teachers and counselors who had "survived the system" passed on those survival skills to the minority students they were legally directed to teach and counsel. Minority counselors lived in and among the people in the community and students learned in the community as well as in the school. Both teachers and counselors were role models as they taught students how to cope with a segregated system. The reservation, the sharecropper's life style, the extended family and group respect, and the clash of languages all forced minorities to develop skills to help their people survive.

The integrated school setting has taken two approaches to counseling minorities, and both are fraught with problems. One approach says, "Leave them alone and they will catch on to what the majority is doing." The other approach says, "I will give them the same treatment as I give the majority students and they must keep up just like everyone else." These are two parts of the same problem, which is to let "counseling as usual" take place and to let minorities sink or swim. Now, no one will admit that in just those terms, but this attitude and subtle approach to counseling minorities is observable right now in many settings. Minority students have the same human potentialities as other students, and they want to be counseled by counselors who see them as individuals, as human beings who come from proud traditions and backgrounds, as personalities created by family ties and cultural upbringing, and with possibilities of becoming greater than they ever imagined in their wildest dreams.

Why spend time discussing and developing new approaches to counseling minorities? There are several reasons. The pluralism of our nation dictates that sensible persons recognize the following facts:

1. Race and racial identification did not go away when schools were integrated.

2. Solving community relations and race relations problems is extremely important if a community is working to move toward a superior quality of life for its citizens.

3. Busing brings students from different backgrounds into schools, and a knowledge of these backgrounds is important to the success of the counselor in counseling and the teacher in teaching.

4. Minorities will always be a part of the school setting.

5. Public schools are becoming more and more minority-occupied, while private schools are becoming less and less minority-occupied.

6. Economic, race, and housing patterns have tremendous impact on education and educational offerings in most communities.

7. America has a history of immigrants coming to its shores believing that "no man is an island."

8. As America becomes more involved in world affairs, knowing effective strategies for counseling persons from different cultures becomes increasingly important.

9. Racial/ethnic diversity is needed to fulfill the national and international goals facing all people as we move toward the 21st century.

Approaches to Counseling Minorities

Each minority group in this country experiences a pull between two worlds. There is the world of their families and the world that is portrayed as "the American way." In both worlds, they are faced with pull of the family and the community--the ethos of the Sitz Im Leben. In the school and in the world beyond the family setting, there is the pull of "being like the Joneses." It is necessary to establish this point first and foremost, and then to follow with a second important point that each minority group develops its own response to being caught between the two worlds.

The approach to counseling minority students must insure that the problems involved in discussing "all students" do not carry over into a discussion of "minority students." "Minority students" is a catch-all concept and should never be used when a more culturally definite term is needed. One actually counsels Spanish-speaking students whose families came from Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, or Spain; Asian American students whose parents came from China, Japan, or Taiwan; Native American students whose parents came from the Plains, the great Southwest, the East, the

Southeast; and Black students whose parents came from Africa, South America, Latin America, or Urban, Rural, Southern, or Northern United States. It is this diversity, this cross-cultural milieu, that requires counselors to have specific preparation in how to respond to the diverse needs of the student publics being served.

"Counseling is essentially a White middle-class activity" (Sue & Sue, 1972). Approaches to counseling minority students must begin with that proposition. It is from this that one moves. The clients that counselors are seeing and will see in the foreseeable future will, by and large, be minority students. Counselors, counselor educators, guidance directors, and state supervisors must keep these facts in mind as programs are planned and strategies developed.

To Carl Rogers (1962) the relationship formed between the counselor and the client is the most important aspect of the counseling process. This relationship becomes even more crucial in counseling minority students. The counseling process with minority students must include sensitivity to language and language differences, empathy as distinguished from sympathy, sincerity and genuineness, family ties and family expectations, acceptance and rejection, and social patterns--and include commitment and a willingness to learn. All of these facets of the counseling relationship can engender positive and negative responses in counselors' activities with their clients.

It is important to understand the uniqueness of minority students from specific racial/cultural backgrounds. Let's examine some important approaches needed in preparing to counsel each.

Counseling Native Americans

"Our foremost plight is our transparency. People can tell just by looking at us what we want, what should be done to help us, how we feel and what a 'real' Indian is like" (Deloria, 1969, p. 1).

There are many counselors who believe that they know best how and what to do with Indian students. Alonzo T. Spang, Sr. (1971) describes four factors that influence counseling practices for Native Americans: "(a) the Non-Indian's perception of Indian people and culture; (b) the recognized strengths and contributions of Indian culture; (c) the special needs and problems of young Indians within American society; and (d) the handicaps that cripple communication between counselors and Indian people" (p. 97). Counselors must refrain from becoming "instant Indian experts" and seek to understand Indian culture in the way the Indian people develop it, live it, and interpret it. The Indian child comes to school speaking his native language, and his entire life style develops out of this language. Once in the classroom, he experiences difficulty communicating in English. His fear of making a mistake may be so great that he does not even attempt to express himself. Counselors working with Native American students must be sensitive, perceptive, and willing to assist the student to deal with successes along the educational ladder of life. It is crucial that counselors put into practice some of the golden-toned principles they claim for their profession: acceptance, respect, understanding, and adaptation--in short, just what they say they do best!

Counseling Chinese Americans

Counselors working with Chinese American students can fall victim to many stereotypes and lose sight of the particular need of the student seated in the office. Historically, Chinese Americans have tried to function within the existing social structure with a minimum of visible conflict with members of the host society (Sue & Sue, 1972). Some Chinese American students refrain from coming to the counselor. It is believed that some Chinese Americans repress emotional conflicts. This may stem from the Chinese American's background and culture wherein self control and inhibition of strong feelings are highly valued (Abbott, 1970). Some Chinese Americans seek the services of campus counseling centers (educational counseling, academic advising, career planning) because they feel less threatened by them and that less social stigma is involved (Sue & Sue, 1972).

Counselors will do well to learn about the culture of Asia if they are going to counsel Chinese American students meaningfully. Like other minorities, Chinese Americans are caught between two worlds. Language and family customs accentuate the differences between the worlds as well as the problems. One of the differences is observable in the choice of counseling technique. Group counseling, for example, while it may greatly facilitate counseling with middle class students, may be very threatening to Chinese Americans. Counselors should examine their techniques and tools in light of cross-cultural differences as well as individual needs. Just as it is unwise to suggest definite guidelines in dealing with Chinese Americans in counseling, it seems equally unwise to ignore cultural factors that might affect the counseling process. The counselor's inability to recognize these factors may make the Chinese American counselee terminate prematurely (Sue & Sue, 1972). Counselors must become culturally aware, understand the basis of their world views, and understand as well as accept the legitimacy of the views of others (Sue, 1978).

Counseling Puerto Ricans

As with each group being discussed, the counselor must become aware of the culture of the client. Although the nature of counseling each minority group is many-faceted, counseling Puerto Rican students possesses an additional concern: Today there are really two groups of Puerto Ricans (Christensen, 1975). There are the second and third generation and the values and customs that they hold dear, in contrast to the immigrants who have been raised in the "old country" and who have values and customs that are set by old country standards and patterns. In still other instances, there are the mainland-raised Puerto Ricans who return to the old country. Counselors can be most important in helping all of these students to bridge their own "generation gap," while at the same time assisting in the necessary value clarifications to insure "afecto," "dignidad," and "respeto" in meeting life situations.

Counselors must understand the highly individualistic nature of Puerto Ricans. The middle-class idea of organized, structured ways of doing things may or may not appeal to the Puerto Rican. The option to be and respond as an individual should never be shut off arbitrarily. For, in the same individualistic manner, the Puerto Rican is tolerant of this trait in others.

Counselors should understand the importance of language and its usage within the Spanish-speaking families. A person's name is that person, and a counselor's mispronouncing it--whether through carelessness or laziness--easily can be construed as lack of interest in the client (Christensen, 1975). Another important thing for counselors to know and understand is that Spanish-speaking families have two last names. Tradition as well as customs prompt this, and the counselor must be sure to recognize both last names. The first last name is from the father's side of the family and the second is from the mother's (ibid). Both names are important to the identity of the client as well as to important links with the past. When a counselor calls the client by only one last name, it might be construed as a questioning of the client's identity.

Counselors should get to know and be known by the families of Puerto Rican clients. Until the counselor is seen and trust is established, the counselor is the "outsider" and little sharing will take place. There is a phrase, "Only kings walk with kings." This is offered to counselors to serve as a reminder that adults walk and talk with adults. The role of the child in the family is distinct from that of adults. Counselors should establish adult relationships with the adult members of the family. To avoid problems and to exhibit interest in establishing trust, counselors should be able to communicate with Puerto Rican parents in the same way as with middle-class white parents. This takes time, but patience is a virtue that needs to be a guiding feature of any counseling relationship.

Counseling Blacks

"We are not all alike!" Counseling Blacks, as with all other minority groups, must develop out of the individual situations in which counselors find themselves involved. Although Blacks make up the largest visible racial/ethnic minority in the country, they possess as many differences as may be found among human beings in general--skin color, region of residence, educational background, rural or urban upbringing, values. It is important that counselors understand that all persons who look Black are not Afro-Americans. Many are foreign students of other ethnic origin from Africa and South America.

"To educate the Negro, we must find out exactly what his background is, what he is today, what his possibilities are, and how to begin with him as he is and make him a better individual of the kind that he is." This is a quote from Carter G. Woodson (1969) made in 1933 which is just as relevant to 1978. One needs only to change the words "educate" to "counsel" and "Negro" to "Black," and the quote becomes right on target for today.

Counseling Black students requires counselors to understand the bitter and the sweet of American history and the workings of a system that made the Black student an "indivisible person" for nearly 100 years. It is impossible to examine the situation from today's perspective and work setting and insure that exploration of the full potential of Blacks will be realized.

In counseling Black youth, it is important to be a good listener--to hear not only what is said but also the way it is said (Clayton, 1972). Counselors working with Black youngsters must be self-assured as to their own identities and attitudes before seeking to assist Black youngsters. There is nothing more critical in the cross-cultural counseling situation than for a counselor to discover his/her own insecurity or stereotypical thinking while trying to counsel a Black student. A structured counseling session is probably more effective when counseling Black students than is a nondirected, unstructured setting. Counselors who have quite a bit of experience with Black students may be able to utilize the unstructured, nondirected approach, but the new counselor should clarify for him/herself and the Black client what is expected and what will be imparted. Counselors should be wary of giving "pat" answers, even in the structured setting. They should structure the setting but provide flexible responses that allow for positive growth. Counselors should remember that they have the knowledge the counselee needs (and they should be sure that they are knowledgeable). It is a "cop out" and smells of "velvet racism" to shift the total responsibility for development to the counselee. Black kids are not so concerned about the counselor being liberal--they are more concerned with the counselor being sincere and relevant (Clayton, 1972). The attitudes of counselors toward themselves, toward others, and toward the purposes of the counseling session determine the kind of relationship that they will offer their clients. The techniques that a counselor uses to communicate these attitudes seem to be of secondary importance (Amos & Grambs, 1968). This is particularly true in urban counseling settings. Urban, disadvantaged children feel that the counselor is an outsider and is therefore unaware of the struggles needed to "cope" and "survive." Ghetto youth very early see themselves as being, and probably realistically so, outside the channels of legitimate opportunity, and the only way they can survive is to be armed with a multiplicity of schemes which enable them to outsmart the system (Morgan, 1970).

Counselors must realize that the students they counsel are individuals with needs, values, attitudes, ideas, rights, and expectations that may be different or may even conflict with their own. And with this realization established, the counselor must also accept, examine, understand, and appreciate the differences.

Counseling Chicanos

Chicanos constitute a minority in nationwide terms. Yet, in some parts of the country they form a substantial part of their communities (Barron, 1972). The fact that Mexico and the United States are lands adjoining serves to provide both positive and negative relations between the two countries. The natural migration patterns have produced the American whose parents came from Mexico. The responses of communities to these people have provided the folkways and mores which eventually have become laws. With the proud history and heritage of a people whose ancestors forged the link between what is now called North and South America, the Chicano is strongly bound by "La Raza" (the Race).

The challenge for you readers is to listen to, and to begin to absorb Chicanismo, to dream the ancient yet dynamic dream of La Raza--not to ask, "What do they want?" as Anglos are wont to do (as if there were things to give), but to ask, "Who are the people of La Raza?" From this understanding you can grow; from this insight they and you can begin to share (Palomares, 1971).

Counselors must understand the cultural heritage, the role of the family and the community, the language, and the goals of the people. Trust is built from within; students must believe the counselor as well as believe in the counselor to begin the process of trusting. Counseling must be individualistic and the counselor must learn how to listen. Many Chicanos have not been exposed to the participation concept of learning, but that does not mean they do not learn when they do not actively participate (Barron, 1972).

Students whose parents are from Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, and many of the South American countries have similar, yet distinct, cultural and language backgrounds. While a general understanding of Spanish, the language, and Spanish, the culture, is an important first step, a very important second step is to approach each counseling session without ethnocentric Anglo biases. The information described in counseling Puerto Ricans can be used as background to counseling Chicanos and Cubanos. Yet, it is important to recognize the individuality of each group and each individual. Counselors should seek to listen and respond to all that forms the makeup of each student seated before them. The effective guidance counselor is not just a guidance counselor; he/she is also a teacher, a social worker, a father or mother image, a psychiatrist, a psychologist, a symbol of the system and the way out of the system, a friend, and a ray of hope. Each child needs personal help. His/her entire career can go down the drain if the student can't understand the counselor or the teachers and if the counselor and teachers do not understand the student's Chicanismo. Viva La Raza!

Overview of Selected Programs

A brief survey of the kinds of programs and practices operating at various levels follows. These include programs designed to give additional assistance to counselors, as well as specific approaches designed directly for working with minority students.

Human Development Program

Harold Bessel and Uvaldo H. Palomares set up a Human Development Program in which counselors and teachers are provided with a structured environment that allows them to practice cross-cultural teaching and counseling. Bessel and Palomares calls this Pluralistic Acculturation. The philosophy behind the idea is that counselors and teachers should come to understand, to accept, and to appreciate the different systems for individual and social life and organization of other cultures and to perceive them as viable and valuable models (Palomares, 1971).

Peer Counseling Program

Sinclair O. Lewis of Jackson State University, Mississippi, describes the Peer Counseling Program designed by Willie D. Kyles, Director of Upward Bound and Special Services Program at Jackson State. Peer Counselors are those students who have a basic interest in the welfare of their fellow students, show a sense of responsibility toward the development of other students, and are able to establish positive informal relationships with their peers. The peer counselors are simply a group of paraprofessionals who, by virtue of their skills, training, and status among their peers, are able to offer support and help to other students in addition to that which they would receive from the traditional counseling program. Black students are trained to help other Black students. Lewis stated that there are some aspects of the problems of Black youth with which professional counselors are unable to deal and that peer counselors are able to respond effectively to these specialized aspects when and where they are needed (Lewis, 1976).

Inservice Workshop

Robert H. Parker and Williams C. Parker have an inservice workshop that they take to educational settings. The program, "Mastering the Art of Educating Minorities," seeks to provide participants with opportunities to look at the deep-seated cultural and social differences that characterize minority youngsters as they attempt to gain an education.

Knowledge of language and its use, of the client, and of oneself as a helping person, and an assortment of readings called "goocies" are included in the workshop. The two brothers turn the workshop into an educational experience which contributes positively to professional development (Parker & Parker, 1976).

International Day

An elementary counselor in Charleston, West Virginia, has an International Day where students wear something representing their own or their parents' native land. The students see, touch, and play something from different cultures in this cross-cultural setting. The entire city also holds an International Day in the civic auditorium where persons gather to observe the varied countries that are represented by citizens. Such cultural expressions as dance, music, food, clothing, and art, are exhibited and the total city becomes involved in this cross-cultural experience.

Self-Discipline Plan

A high school in Carencro, Louisiana, has an innovative program called the Self-Discipline Plan. In this plan concepts such as "Reality," "Understanding," "Involvement," "Discipline," "Responsibility," and "Feeling" are brought to bear in the students' response to their educational experience. Positive Discipline means seeking permanent behavior change, and in this search it is believed that fairness, consistency, and immediacy are essential. Students are given the opportunity to satisfy their own needs without depriving others of the ability to fulfill their needs. The program was designed to provide an alternative to suspension and, at the same time, to keep students from developing negative self-images.

When a problem occurs in the school, the student and teacher try to reach a solution through a conference. The student makes a written commitment concerning the problem. If the commitment is met, the problem is resolved. If the commitment is broken, the teacher calls the parent and the student is sent to the counselor for that grade level.

The counselor does not discipline but tries to understand the student and work out the problem at this level. Should this fail, the next level is the assistant principal. At this level, understanding and commitment are again the desired outcome. If this fails as well, the student is then sent to the Self-Discipline Center.

The Self-Discipline Center becomes the student's learning environment within the school. The student's class work is sent to the Center. There are two breaks and a 20-minute lunch period. Reality, Understanding, Involvement, Responsibility, etc. are all reinforced by the Center director, the counselors, the teachers, the principal, the students, and the parents. While the Self-Discipline Center is a very strong measure designed to meet the needs of problem students, it does keep the student in school and, at Carencro, it has been a successful venture.

These programs are a sample of what is being done in various settings to counsel minorities today. Other programs are being documented in a forthcoming publication by ERIC/CAPS (Clayton, in press). This new publication will attempt to respond to many concerns and interests of counselors faced with developing programs, activities, and training aids in counseling minority students. The publication, entitled Minorities--Relevant Counselor Responses, will discuss current approaches to counseling minorities, and identify programs that are currently operating at elementary, middle school, secondary school, and postsecondary levels. It also will provide a mechanism whereby counselors can forward to ERIC their own individual techniques for counseling minority students and for cross-cultural counseling. These will then become part of a planned data program bank on program activities for counseling minority students that counselors can both contribute to and consult for effective counseling programs and approaches.

Some Helpful Resources

A number of resources are available to counselors to assist them in responding to the counseling needs of minority students. The foremost resource is the Journal of Non-White Concerns published through the American Personnel and Guidance Association. This journal should occupy a particularly important place in the library of every counselor's office and/or work setting. Many of the other journals published through APGA have articles which offer assistance to counselors. Some of the ones that might be particularly helpful include Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, The School Counselor, Counselor Education and Supervision, Journal of College Student & Personnel, and Measurement of Evaluation In Guidance. The Personnel and Guidance Journal is the main publication of APGA and is available to all members. The other journals are available to persons having divisional affiliations within APGA. ERIC is another rich source of information for counselors. An ERIC search of the literature in various kinds of program areas is easily available to interested persons. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Counseling and Personnel Services at The University of Michigan, is an invaluable storehouse of materials and resources for counselors.

Some of the local resources that may be in communities where counselors live are Community Relations offices, the National Urban League, the League of United Latin American Citizens, ASPIRA of America, Centro De Estadios Chicanos, the National Congress of American Indians, the National Institute on Access to Higher Education for The Mexican American, the National Advisory Council on Indian Education, and Asian American Affairs offices. State, local, and Federal agencies are also resources to which counselors may turn. Another helpful resource will also be found in the previously mentioned ERIC/CAPS publication (Clayton, in press).

Recommendations to Persons and Groups Where Change Can Make a Difference

Implicit in the scope of these pages has been one major theme: Counseling and counselor education, as currently practiced and taught, have not utilized their maximum potential in responding to the needs of minority students. Today's counselor is facing a tremendous challenge in assisting today's youth. The typical client is vastly different from the boy or girl who needed counseling help in 1945--and there are many more of them (Amos & Grambs, 1968). The following are recommendations to specific groups for actions they can take to help counselors deal more effectively with minority students.

State Supervisors of Guidance

The ultimate responsibility for guidance and counseling within a state falls on the shoulders of the state supervisor of guidance. Allocations of money, standards for certification, setting of policy, collection of data, and establishment of general guidelines, as well as leadership in the development of programs, emanate from the office of the state supervisor. Some recommendations for State Supervisors are to:

1. Establish action-oriented programs and experiences for counselors within the state. Meetings, programs, and activities should be designed to show some act of movement toward (a) identification of specific concerns, (b) exploration into the options for responding to these concerns, (c) policy and program development to respond to prioritized options, and (d) documentation of the results.

2. Work with local systems to establish cross-cultural committees of parents, counselors, and students to (a) determine local needs, (b) develop the proper training (inservice as well as preservice) of counselors in response to the cross-cultural nature of the local system, and (c) document the results.

3. Establish and encourage attendance at quarterly inservice workshops designed to foster professional development of counselors in currently useful techniques in cross-cultural counseling within the state.

4. Seek to obtain funding from state and federal sources to insure adequate financial backing for the action-driven programs.

5. Request that local school districts annually forward data to the state supervisor's office on the progress of the action-driven programs.

6. Insure and encourage fair hiring and promotional practices for counselors within the state.

7. Require counselor education programs to establish cross-cultural counseling experiences as a part of their curricula by requiring such as a prerequisite for hiring counselors within the state.

Guidance Directors

The local authority and/or area authority for guidance and counseling is the Guidance Director. Aside from implementing the policies and directives from the state supervisor of guidance, the Guidance Director has responsibility for helping the district/area superintendent to define the philosophy, mission, goals, objectives, activities, type of personnel, number of persons, materials, and supplies that will be implemented/needed in that area. Specifically, Guidance Directors can:

1. Identify cross-cultural needs within their area through using (a) census data, (b) community surveys, (c) local media, and (d) school enrollment data.

2. Foster, encourage, and support programs and activities that schools develop to address (a) their local cross-cultural needs, and (b) the total cross-cultural understanding necessary for the school district.

3. Support and encourage fair employment and promotional practices that respond to the cross-cultural needs of the school district.

4. Seek local funding from foundations, business, industry, and other sources to promote programs of cross-cultural understanding to insure the quality of life for all citizens in the local community.

5. Encourage and support local counselor inservice meetings to explore, discuss, and implement program activities in cross-cultural understanding.

6. Encourage each local school to design and develop a teacher-counselor manual on cross-cultural understanding.

7. Have the manual available for new counselor orientation programs, and require some knowledge of the manual as a part of the prehiring requirements.

8. Utilize local community agencies and organizations in the cross-cultural life of the schools.

Counselor Educators

The statements made throughout these pages point to a need for revised curricula for counselor education. Smith (1967), Arbuckle (1969, 1972), Ayers (1970), Cimbolic (1972), Kearney and Clayton (1973), Palomares (1971), Harper (1973), Bryson (1975), Sue (1978), and Pendersen (1978) are just some of the writers proposing new directions for and re-examination of counselor education programs. Counselor education programs can respond in the following ways to cross-cultural needs:

1. Make cross-cultural courses and practicum experiences in cross-cultural learning/counseling settings a part of the graduation requirements for all students seeking to receive Master's and Doctor's degrees in Guidance and Counseling.

2. Utilize community resources to demonstrate cross-cultural programming within the curricula.

3. Encourage and support fair hiring and promotional policies within the counselor education program at the university.

4. Seek funding to allow maximum utilization of the university's resources in the cross-cultural growth of students, staff, and faculty.

5. Encourage action-driven research that utilizes the "whole person" approach to cross-cultural understanding rather than the "dissected" approach that has characterized much of the racial/ethnic research in the past.

6. Insist that each student graduating within the program become well-versed in the culture of at least one other racial/ethnic group beyond his/her own. Include this as a part of the comprehensive examination requirements.

Counselors

"The buck stops here!" In day-to-day activity, you, the counselor, are the one who is out there on the main thoroughfare of school activity and learning. There is no time to rush back to the classroom, the text book, or the manual. There is no time to call the principal, let alone the guidance supervisor. When the ball bounces, it bounces either to you or away from you. It is your response to the bounce of the ball that determines your worth as a counselor. Sometimes you have only one chance. It has been said that "Counseling is one of those words that everybody understands but no two people seem to understand in precisely the same way" (Tyler, 1961, p. 1). Counselors can help in cross-cultural counseling if they:

1. Identify the cross-cultural nature of their institution and seek to understand the racial/ethnic, cultural dimensions identified.

2. Encourage students to pursue their racial/ethnic, cultural backgrounds with the desire to understand themselves better.

3. Encourage cross-cultural activities for their students and promote interracial and international understanding as keys to the kind of American that will be around as these students enter the 21st century.

4. Provide opportunities for faculty and staff growth in cross-cultural understanding by sharing information (that which will be forthcoming from the state, district, and local sources) and offering assistance.

5. Request the principal's support in activities related to counseling so as to assist the principal in making the school a model for cross-cultural understanding.

6. Establish a cross-cultural support committee including persons from the community so as to insure community involvement and community support in the school's cross-cultural understanding and programming.

7. Utilize persons, agencies, churches, and organizations that represent the varied racial, ethnic, and cultural dimensions within the community. Have these as active elements in the school and the community.

8. Document the activities, programs, accomplishments, and failures so that others can profit by their developments. Establish a link with the ERIC-directed project, Minorities--Relevant Counselor Responses, so as to insure the use of relevant and effective program responses to cross-cultural needs that will be confronting counselors in the future.

Summary

The techniques and tools of cross-cultural counseling have, by and large, been provided to counselors by counselor educators and supervisors, although much more can be done to equip counselors with the necessary knowledge, attitudes, and skills for cross-cultural counseling. The major weaknesses have been in people-to-people relationships. Ethnocentrism, cultural blindness, and velvet racism have prevented understanding, acceptance, trust, and human development from occurring. Racial/ethnic minorities will be with us for as long as there is life on this planet. Cross-cultural understanding and living can facilitate this nation's move into the twenty-first century and provide a ray of hope to all the different peoples of America. America is not a melting pot.. In all the years here, nothing has melted. Instead, lumps have developed in the pot and no one wants lumpy cooking. America is a mosaic, a stained glass window. Each racial/ethnic group stands out in bold relief while the composite picture forms America--its peoples, its life. The roots of that America are spread throughout the land in a variety of colors and shapes. Counselors are the cultivators, and the harvest time is yet to come.

> A sower went out to sow . . . and some fell on stony ground,
> some fell among the thorns, and some fell in fertile ground. *Mark 4:2ff*

How shall American harvest its pluralistic society whose roots must grow in all types of soil? Counselors, Counselor Educators, Supervisors, Directors of Guidance--your cross-cultural understanding and skills will provide what is needed for Red, Black, Brown, Yellow, and White students. Let the historians record that we came, we saw, and we gave life and hope to each racial/ethnic group. Understanding counselors with cross-cultural training were there.

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9 career/life counseling for liberated people

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CAREER/LIFE COUNSELING FOR LIBERATED PEOPLE

Peggy Hawley

The author presents a variety of ideas, insights, points of view, and practical strategies which are supported and augmented by research findings, survey data, and trend analysis statistics. She points out that nine out of ten women will work outside the home for at least part of their lives. Career life planning, at least for these women and their spouses, will involve rethinking traditional sex roles and obligations. Four groups of people are especially important in providing leadership during this transition: counselor educators, guidance directors, supervisors, and practicing counselors.

We are in the midst of unprecedented and pervasive changes affecting that most fundamental of human concerns, sex role identity. Although the most conspicuous and well-articulated arguments on the need for redefinition of sex roles come from the women's movement itself, the continuing energy and sustaining power can be attributed to a much wider and more diverse set of circumstances. Feminism, as a social reform movement, has grown and merged with economic, political, legal and social imperatives until separate components are nearly indistinguishable and the combined strength of influences irresistible.

Inevitable as changes are, it is obvious that they are not equally acceptable to everyone. Even the most enthusiastic of sex role egalitarians do not claim that change will necessarily be smooth or effortless. Convictions of what constitutes sex-appropriate behaviors are socially conditioned so early in life that many individuals view them as immutable "facts" rather than as learned responses to environmental pressures.

More is involved, certainly, than the threat posed by changes in time-honored cultural values. The encroachment of women into male-dominated areas of work, backed up by force of law, is a serious economic threat as well. In the past, men have been competing with only half of the population so that the entrance of women, particularly capable women, into the marketplace carries with it some hard-to-face realities.

It is indeed a time of transition. Typical of any such period is the polarizing of issues caused by extremists at both ends--the radical feminists who repudiate all aspects of traditional femininity on one hand, and the conservative "die-hards" on the other, who predict that "these women's libbers will be the downfall of the American way of life."

Few individuals can remain untouched by what is happening. Adults who are in a position to interface with the lives of young people have a twofold responsibility. In addition to understanding the ways in which their own lives and human relationships are affected, they must develop the ability to help students cope with changes and pressures their generation did not fully experience.

In the discussion to follow, an attempt will be made to offer the reader a variety of ideas, insights, points of view, and practical strategies which are supported and augmented by research findings, survey data, and trend analysis statistics. Although the practitioners' daily needs have been held uppermost, the assumption has been made that the theory and empirical research are necessary underpinnings to successful practice. In the spirit of collaboration, therefore, references are made to the work of many kinds of professionals who contribute to our knowledge of human behavior--the theorist, the researcher, the speculator, and the practitioner. Future challenges call for concerted efforts by the best minds available and for cooperation among people representing many disciplines and viewpoints.

A Reexamination of Sex Roles: Dichotomous and Androgynous Models

It is interesting to observe that the lay public, as well as the social scientist, are engaged in reassessing the viability of sex roles in modern life. Curiously, as the obsolescence of traditional sex roles begins to surface, people are becoming more truly aware of just how restrictive those roles really were, even in the recent past when they were more functional than they are now. A serendipitous by-product of the feminist movement is that men, watching the struggle of women to release themselves from gender-based stereotypes, have awakened to different, but equally detrimental, aspects of the male role. The high psychic cost of an ideal which demands that one person assume the sole, or even primary, responsibility for support of a family in an economy such as ours, is overwhelming. Newly recognized also are other "lethal" aspects of the male model, such as the requirement to appear tough, objective, striving, achieving, unsentimental, and emotionally unexpressive (Jourard, 1971). Similarly, only recently has there been

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a general appreciation of women's feelings of futility and lack of self-determination engendered by the conditioned passiveness of the female role.

Most important of all, however, is the partial emancipation both sexes have achieved from the fear that a display of characteristics "belonging" to the other sex is somehow a violation of their own sexual identity. Less than five years ago a picture of Senator Muskie showed him shedding what used to be considered "unmanly" tears. Such an anecdote is not presented as an argument that fears of cross-sex behaviors have completely disappeared (much convinces us that old taboos still operate); yet it offers hope that a significant number of people are less rigid than they were a short time ago.

The Dichotomous Model of Sex Roles

One does not have to go very far back in time to find authoritative descriptions of sex roles which are predicted on a dichotomous view of human behavior. In this view, the attitudes, behaviors and expectations of women and men are not only different, they are mutually exclusive. One study, now a classic in feminist literature, illustrates this position clearly. Broverman (1970) discovered that male and female psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers made clear-cut distinctions between what they considered healthy men and healthy women. Their views of mentally healthy men correlated strongly with those of the healthy adult (sex unspecified) but their descriptions of healthy women presented them as significantly more submissive, dependent, and emotional as well as less aggressive and competitive than their male counterparts. Such descriptions are a good example not only of the double standard held for generations by "common folk," but also of the opinions typical of "experts." A replication of this study today hopefully would result in different findings.

Separate standards for men and women, insofar as they still apply, are compounded by yet another conviction of mental health professionals, the assumption that strong identification with one's own sex is a sign of good mental/emotional adjustment. Conversely, then, cross-sex behaviors and attitudes are considered unhealthy. Growing out of Freudian theory, this belief reinforces the mutual exclusivity of sex-role characteristics and precludes easy access to behaviors "owned" by the other sex.

The Androgynous Model of Sex Roles

Evidence is accumulating that, contrary to opinions of experts and laypersons alike, sex characteristics are more similar than they are different. Whether one studies characteristics at the hormonal or behavioral level, the coexistence of male and female traits within each of us--the overlap between what males and females can do--is impressive. The conviction that the female is the weaker of the species, for example, must be qualified by the ways in which strength is defined and measured. If resistance to birth defects, ulcers, heart disease, and longevity are the criteria, it is the male who must be considered to be the weaker of the species.

Clearly, the old model is inappropriate, even dysfunctional, for our times. A new conceptual model is needed, allowing men and women to freely acknowledge attributes and pursue goals formerly considered off limits for them. The term "androgynous," from the Greek "andro" (male) and "gyne" (female), describes this model and is rapidly coming into general use.

Certainly, most people do not consciously change their behavior to match an abstract model, yet environmental pressures act upon all of us in such a way as to modify how we think and act. No matter how articulate or vague our views of femininity and masculinity, the subtle influences operating in our daily lives mold our ideas and, consequently, shape our behavior. Some people seem to have escaped the most restrictive aspects of conventional roles better than others. Bem (1974) found that those who refused to be genetically typecast were best able to respond to unique situations.

My own work with 2,234 young women of high school age revealed a strong relationship between high I.Q. scores, high socioeconomic status, and androgynous attitudes (Hawley, in press, b). This was reflected, of course, in the corresponding relationship between low I.Q. scores, low socioeconomic status, and dichotomous views of sex roles. Admittedly, I.Q. measures do not capture the many facets of the intellect; yet it is interesting to note that high school women who do well academically tend to be freer of sex-role constraints than their less scholasticallyinclined classmates. The finding is important because college-bound females will enter an environment conducive to liberal attitudes in regard to opportunities for women (Kerber, 1977), and will be preparing for careers where women are less apt than previously to face discrimination. In addition to these advantages, they are more likely to associate and form intimate, long-lasting relationships with men who have androgynous world views. This is not to say that all of the "Archie Bunkers" in our society wear blue collars, as demonstrated by the fact that medicine, law, and upper levels of management have only recently opened up to more than a very few women. Nevertheless, it is the noncollege groups of both sexes that need the special attention of counselors. Their particular dilemma will be discussed at greater length later.

To Work or Not to Work: No Longer a Question

The reservoir of skills and talents embodied in 51% of the population is now beginning to be utilized in the public sector to an extent previously unequaled in peacetime. In the 25 years since 1950, the number of working women has doubled, while the number of working men has increased by only one-fourth. Large-scale movement of women into the workforce is not a new phenomenon, as those will attest who witnessed their entry into jobs vacated by men in World War II. The current growth of female workers is not a response to a temporary crisis, however, but has come about by the convergence of many forces, some of which are far from temporary:

1. Changing notions about what constitutes a suitable standard of living.

2. Accelerated demand for women due to growth of service areas in which women have normally been concentrated.

3. Longer female life span and smaller family size resulting in a shortened period for child-rearing and a lengthened period for wage-earning.

4. Increased education and the opportunities resulting from this.

5. Legislation prohibiting sex discrimination.

6. Greater general acceptance of women's needs and rights to paid employment.

7. Changed perceptions of the male and female roles.

8. A growing rate of inflation.

Of all of the forces listed above, the steadily rising rate of inflation is the most pervasive, potent, and persistent force affecting workers of both sexes. Furhter, the specter of inflation is likely to haunt us far into the foreseeable future, carrying with it an impact on our lifestyles not yet fully appreciated. Even the most modest estimate--a 6% inflation rate--means that a single-family home selling in 1977 for $54,400 will cost $244,327 in 1997. A prime rib dinner costing $9.75 in 1977 will rise in 1997 to $26.36, a haircut will cost $12.98, and a Hershey bar $1.27 ("Statistical Spotlight," 1977). Some economic forecasters predict that the average couple will be unable to purchase a single-family dwelling in the near future. One thing is certain: The necessity of two wage earners per family unit will increase rather than diminish.

Youngsters now in school must understand and accept the responsibility for self-support, plus the probability of dependents, and must prepare for these eventualities. Grade school girls and boys need to be treated equally insofar as the preparation for participation in the work force is concerned. At this juncture, however, we cannot fail to recognize that girls need special career counseling which takes into consideration their biological roles as mothers as well as their need to reexamine their traditional roles as wives and homemakers. Males have always had the privilege of viewing their careers primarily in terms of their interests and abilities. Now that women are being required to take greater part in income-producing responsibilities, men must be encouraged to rethink their roles as fathers and partners in the management of home responsibilities.

Characteristics of Students Holding Androgynous Views

In the study previously mentioned (Hawley, in press, b), three characteristics distinguished young high school women holding the most traditional views of sex roles:

1. Lack of androgynous role models: Few significant adults in their lives pursued androgynous careers or held nonstereotypical views of sex roles.

2. Avoidance of "masculine" subjects: They selected typically feminine academic courses, avoiding subjects such as math and shop.

3. Excessive dependence upon relationships with males: They were extraordinarily concerned with their ability to attract a male, and saw

this ability as the primary, often exclusive means of self-validation.

Lack of androgynous role models. Modifying the powerful influence of the home as a determinant of attitudes, goals, and behaviors is difficult and fraught with ethical implications. Without denigrating parental convictions on sex-appropriate occupations and life styles, however, counselors can simply present an array of career/life models and engage students in an examination of their advantages and disadvantages.

The following eight models should be presented in the spirit of exploration with the explanation that they are potentially workable only if they are the result of informed choice and if they fit the unique needs and aspirations of the individuals concerned. Further, it can be emphasized that choices need not be permanent. Careers and the life styles that accommodate them can be expected to undergo many alterations and reversals throughout an individual's lifetime.

1. The "dual role" or "androgynous" model. Home and work responsibilities are shared equally without regard to tradition, although specific task assignments may be commensurate with individual abilities and tastes. Some relationships typical of this model are deliberately "child-free," while in others children are carefully planned and fathering is considered as important as mothering.

2. The "reversed role" or "househusband" model. In this plan, home responsibilities are assigned to the man, wage-earning responsibilities to the woman. Although there are few examples of this arrangement, those that

do exist appear to be quite functional. They serve, at the very least, to help upset stereotypical standards.

3. The "alternating" or "turnabout" model. Here, individuals, without regard for sex roles, take turns at home management (including child care, cooking, cleaning, etc.), at student status (preparing for a trade or profession), or at producing income for the couple or family unit. This plan often merges into the androgynous model.

4. The "hiatus" or "interrupted career" model. This is the plan which, at the present time, seems best able to accommodate the aspirations of most career women who wish to take time out for child rearing. Career may often be secondary before marriage and children, only to become primary afterward. Length of the hiatus is, of course, subject to individual situations, inclinations, and the labor market. Long-range planning is imperative in this case because the work gap must be spanned in some ongoing way so that the woman can remain work-ready.

5. The "woman's work as secondary" model. This is the most common arrangement of all. While the man continues his role as the main provider, the woman may work part- or full-time to supplement the income. She may also work for personal enrichment and a sense of identity, especially when children are grown. Her activities are not the main source of support and are always expendable in the case of relocation or some other contingency. Counselors are often accused of thoughtlessly perpetuating this model; yet, if it is a well-considered choice, with fully examined options and implications, it is well suited to the present state of

work reality and male attitudes.

6. The "woman's work is primary" model. A reversal of the one above, this lifestyle provides for the man to be the secondary bread-winner and the woman's career to be paramount. Women, for various reasons, may be more employable than men due to job availability, the state of the economy, better educational background, or illness of the husband, to name but a few. This arrangement is not as rare as the "househusband" model and is typically born of necessity rather than choice.

7. The "traditional" or "woman's-place-is-in-the-home" model. Least complex of all arrangements, its roles are established by practice and custom and do not require renegotiation. As a system, it served us well in earlier times when many middle-class women could choose to work inside or outside the home. It is important to honor this traditional sex role model and the many couples who are living examples of the viability of this life style.

8. The "single woman" or "go-it-alone" model. This is an example of another increasingly common life style. For the never-married woman, "spinsterhood" has carried an assumption of having "missed the boat." The premise that singleness is involuntary is both patronizing and inaccurate. There are growing numbers of women who, while not necessarily remaining manless, prefer to remain free of marital ties. This independent life style affords the maximum condition for freedom of movement and behavior with minimal constraints or concessions. More typical, however, is the pattern in which the woman may move in and out of marriage with stretches

of singleness in between. Statistics on the divorce rate offer testimony that this model can be appropriate more than once in an individual life span.

These eight models are "sure fire" debate issues or discussion topics for groups or in the one-to-one interaction between counselor and counselee and can be analyzed in relation to:

a. Kinds of job descriptions that would best be accommodated by these life styles.

b. Benefits and liabilities of each life style model.

c. Compatibility with student's current male or female friend or family constellation (an immediate "reality" check).

d. Possible modifications and combinations of models appropriate to various life stages, economic conditions, and other contingencies.

e. Viability of selected models for other known individuals and circumstances.

The often-discounted career day approach to career development can be very useful to young women if carefully selected workers from nontraditional areas can relate to youth with candor and humor. In a period of sex role transition, even more important than factual work information are the personal aspects which make the difference between a successful integration of home and work roles and a chaotic and disruptive one. Young women need the answers to many questions even though they may be too naive to formulate them:

How do you convince your husband to share work in the home?

Who takes off work to care for a sick child?

How does your husband react to your out-of-town conferences?

Will men really work for a woman boss?

How do you handle male "put-downs" and sexual "come-ons" in the office?

Because adolescents are ordinarily not sophisticated enough to articulate all of the relevant questions that should be discussed, the visitor should be "primed" beforehand. The important point to be stressed, however, is the necessity for young women to explore their roles as employees, and as women in relationship to men in work settings, in intimate relationships, and in the family constellation. The trick is to make factual occupational information psychologically real in the existential sense.

Due to the social conditioning of women whose main avenue to the "good life" has been through attracting a male with career potential, the connection between school curriculum and later vocational opportunities has been extremely vague, so they continue to follow traditional patterns.

Avoidance of "masculine" subjects. Women continue to enroll in subjects which perpetuate the status quo. Math is a good case in point. Girls can more easily avoid the study of mathematics because it is commonly assumed that women and math are naturally incompatible. Female students explain a poor grade in arithmetic significantly more often than males by attributing their failure to lack of ability rather than to lack of effort (Dornbusch, 1974). Certainly, at a time when women were locked into a narrow range of career options, math was less crucial to their occupations than is the case today. It is important to close the gap between opportunity and preparation. Sociologist Lucy Sells (1973) calls math a "critical filter" which screens women out of fields, not only in engineering and the physical and natural sciences, but in economics and business as well. Resulting from this deficiency is the restriction of women to the relatively lower-paying fields of the humanities, social and library sciences, social welfare, and education.

Recent research indicates that there is nothing intrinsic in arithmetic and mathematics that makes them more appealing or enjoyable to one sex than the other (Ernest, 1976). When math courses become optional at the high school and college level, however, far fewer women elect to take them. Males, whether they like it or not, are aware that a mathematical background is prerequisite to their future role as workers. It is imperative, therefore, that counselors, teachers, administrators, and parents help dispel the myth of a genetic basis for mathematical aptitude , and encourage girls to pursue math throughout high school in order to keep open a wide spectrum of options.

Clinics are being established for the treatment of "mathophobics" of both sexes and all age groups. Ruth Afflack, University of California at Long Beach, works with mid-career people in a positive supportive atmosphere in an intensive weekend course. Lenore Blum of Mills College has developed a program for providing psychological as well as academic support for mathematics at the college level. Sheila Tobias of Wesleyan

University, neither a psychologist nor a mathematician but a former math avoider herself, has devised a counseling approach now being used as a model across the nation. Addresses of these programs are listed below. Similar programs are described in a free booklet (J. Ernest, Mathematics and Sex) obtainable from the Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R. Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

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Another formidable barrier is created by the notion that females are, by nature, unmechanical. Girls and women have been almost totally dependent upon men who have taken upon themselves full responsibility for the development, repair, and management of the technology that is so large a part of modern life. Opening the doors to females interested in auto mechanics, industrial design, and the like is an important first step which now must be augmented by conscious myth de-bunking and active encouragement for them to enter areas heretofore considered exclusively male territory. These additional steps are necessary if women are to move beyond their passive roles as observers or, at best, button-pushers, in a technological society.

Women whose formal education ended with high school have previously been relegated to jobs at the very bottom of the pay scale with little hope of advancement. Men with the same educational background and abilities have been able to enter the skilled trades where job opportunities have offered the highest wage scales below the level of management. Recent break-throughs, however, in the heretofore impregnable barriers to women in the male-dominated union system now allow women to enter apprenticeship programs where they can earn more than $20,000 annually after achieving the status of journeyman. The Department of Labor has established 30 Apprenticeship Information Offices. For a description of this program, see The National Apprentice Program, Washington, D.C.:

U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, 1972.

Excessive dependence upon relationships with males. The universal desire to be appreciated and admired by one's peers, particularly by the other sex, is understandable at any age, but particularly in adolescence. Moreover, the practicality of this goal must be acknowledged due to the fact that a middle class woman's financial security and social status have been a function of how "well" she married. A woman marrying the boss's son is congratulated while a man marrying the boss's daughter often faces thinly veiled innuendos about his competence.

Added to the pressures and persuasiveness of the middle class feminine ideal is the ubiquitous and unceasing emphasis upon sexual attractiveness in our society, reinforced and personalized by the inner promptings of puberty. Small wonder that young women find more self-validation in their relationships with males than in demonstrations of excellence in academic, artistic, or athletic accomplishment. They tend to be motivated by the desire for praise and look to males for approval and direction, while males tend to be motivated by a desire for mastery, hence are apt to be more task-oriented. The old maxim that "boys figure the task and girls figure the teacher" has a disturbing element of truth. When the environmental climate changes from one in which performance is rewarded with love and approval to the one where rewards are more intrinsic, women often lose their foresight, self-discipline, confidence, and perserverance. Henning and Jardin, in The Managerial Woman (1977), describe this passive sense of self as the "waiting to be chosen" syndrome.

Parents, counselors, and teachers have almost unconsciously reinforced characteristics in both sexes that are relevant to their future adult roles. Marriage and motherhood, both salient goals for women, have implied that interpersonal skills were very important. They still are. It is vital that counselors do nothing to denigrate traditional feminine attributes. In fact, they should point out to both sexes that interpersonal skills are more crucial than ever before, and their utility is by no means limited to the domestic arena. Sharie Crain (1977) of International Harvester comments, "The times call for a new type of business-person...I delight in the knowledge that many of the traits that have been culturally induced in us (and programmed out of the male psyche) are the very traits that may be essential to the survival of business in the future" (p.35). She supports this assertion by noting the increasing use of organizational development seminars in which employees are exposed to group dynamics, communication exercises, and other "arational" processes. Mintzberg, in the Harvard Business Review (1976), states that managers discussing the process of making strategic decisions rarely report the use of "hard" data. They rely on "soft" data and describe their decision-making by using words such as "hunch," "intuition," and "judgment."

New Relationships between Men and Women

The Multiple Roles of Women

The failure of women generally to reach the heights of accomplishment in the world outside of the home has been attributed to their basic disposition and the notion that an incompatibility exists between the abilities required for home management and those needed in the marketplace. Slowly we are beginning to realize that the demands in the two settings are not that different, and the real problem lies in the fact that women have tried to add a new role to an existing one and have thought they should play both simultaneously. Force of habit, the persistence of traditional ideas about "women's role" on the part of both men and women, have prevented us from fully appreciating the enormous physical and emotional burden that dual responsibilities entail. The average employed woman spends at least 26 hours per week on home duties in addition to her job. This makes a 66-hour work week, not including time for travel. A renegotiation of home and work responsibilities is already occurring, although it is not yet very widespread, and women still feel guilty because they cannot simultaneously be perfect wives/mothers/housekeepers/wage-earners. It does not appear that the rapid movement of women into the labor market has been matched by any great increase in husband's willingness to share home chores.

The Differential Effect of Marriage

Few would argue that the institution of marriage, traditionally defined, has affected females and males differentially. Yet it is only when we look at the nature of marriage in a setting where there are two wage-earners that the differential effect on the sexes becomes clear. A comprehensive study of over 3,000 recipients of Master's and

Ph.D. degrees granted in the years 1950, 1960, and 1968 will serve to illustrate the need for role renegotiation if women are to carry their fair share of the financial burden in the coming years.

Simply stated, marriage was shown to be supportive of male careers and detrimental to female careers although this difference was more pronounced among earlier graduates than among those finishing in 1968. With years of experience, kinds of employment, and types of discipline held constant, publication of books and articles was taken as an index of productivity. Single men and women published at approximately the same rate, an average of 10 books and/or articles, while married men published twice as much as married women, 19 publications for each man, compared with 9 for each woman. Clearly, domestic responsibilities interfered with professional productivity. Moreover, women with advanced degrees were less likely ever to have been married and more apt to have been divorced or separated. Nearly two out of five women who married before earning their degrees were divorced compared with one out of eight who married after obtaining their degrees. Despite the fact that the decision to pursue a degree may have been the result and not the cause of divorce, the results show that professional commitment puts pressures on a marriage, especially after roles have been firmly established.

So-called re-entry women, those whose major investment has been in the home for a period of years, undergo experiences in their efforts to enter the job market which yield insights helpful in counseling their younger counterparts. Ineligible for unemployment insurance, too young for Social Security, these women have become "displaced homemakers," whose plight has brought about legislation in the form of aid in 13 states.

A counseling center in Michigan has found that male and female co-leaders are particularly effective in facilitating growth because career development for women is closely tied to intimate, male-female relationships. Dr. Elinor Waters (1978), the Center Director, explains:

> Our hunch is that many of our clients are exploring their relations with the other sex and have benefitted from a supportive mixed-sex team. We believe that our program helps men to be more affective and women to be more effective, and that this blurring of traditional sex roles has a positive impact.

Shared Responsibilities for Sexual Behavior

Because of the female's greater biological vulnerability and assumptions about her "purity" and low sex drive compared with males, the main responsibility for sexual control as well as disproportionately heavy social penalties for sexual misconduct have fallen upon her shoulders. Juvenile justice systems tend to perpetuate this double standard by harsher treatment of young women for "status offenses" (promiscuity, bad behavior, running away from home) than for young men. The American Bar Association reports that nearly 75% of underage girls arrested, as opposed to fewer than 30% of the boys, are charged with this type of transgression.

New Directions for Young Women, in collaboration with the Pima

County Juvenile Justice System and Law Enforcement in Tucson, Arizona, has made significant advances by providing an alternative to detention through a counseling and occupational training and placement program for female and minority status offenders. For further information contact Carol Zimmerman, 2813 South Sixth Avenue, Tucson, Arizona 85713, (602) 623-3677.

Willingness to share responsibilities for the control of sexual activities is an area which demands renegotiation between the sexes. An estimated 11 million teenagers in America engage in sexual intercourse, with the result that there are nearly 700,000 adolescent pregnancies a year, followed by 300,000 abortions, 200,000 out-of-wedlock births, almost 100,000 miscarriages, and 100,000 hasty and often short-lived marriages (Byrne, 1977).

Information on the sexual facts of life or even on the mechanics of birth control is necessary but not sufficient to prevent unwanted pregnancies. All of us, adults and teenagers alike, struggle with both positive and negative feelings about sex, an amibguity which generates attitudes that interfere with decision-making. Birth control methods, of whatever form, require conscious planning, which is an admission that intercourse is likely to occur. Curiously, social disapproval of extra- or pre-marital sex remains strong enough in this permissive age to inhibit the use of preventative measures, but not strong enough to inhibit the act entirely. It appears from recent investigations into the problem of increasing juvenile pregnancies that adolescents suffer less guilt if they tell themselves they were carried away by passion--their own or another's. This romantic interpretation seems to absolve them of personal responsibility in a spontaneous event. Byrne makes explicit the steps required if an individual is to use contraceptive measures:

1. Admission to one's self that intercourse is likely to occur.

2. Acquisition of the paraphernalia to be used, which is tantamount to a public notice of intention.

3. Need to communicate with one's partner about methods being used, which calls for two planners and a certain degree of maturity.

4. Actual use of the device in a consistent manner.

Counselors working with adolescent sexual problems face a difficult task. The sex-for-fun philosophy is reinforced by the media and amply demonstrated by adult examples. Usually, young people enter into sexual relationships with no thought for the future, even though they realize at less-than-conscious level that they are not ready for parenthood, and no desire to face the alternatives--adoption or abortion. Yet many adolescents of both sexes actually are looking for reasons to resist peer pressures toward sexual activity. All of them need to be helped to realize that irresponsible sex is ignorant and dangerous. Inclusion of values clarification discussions in addition to provision of information on sex can give youth opportunities to examine fundamental questions central to human relationships.

Only six states and the District of Columbia mandate sex education, and 60% of the school districts in these states prohibit discussion of birth control methods (Byrne, 1977). Perhaps parents and educators also struggle with ambiguous attitudes toward sex, especially in regard to adolescents. On a rational level they may admit that the denial of information does not prevent sex--it prevents only responsible sex. On the emotional level, however, they may feel that the presentation of information, even when it includes the dimension of values clarification, in and of itself encourages sexual activity. This position perhaps could have been justified when it was possible to control a youngster's environment to a greater extent than is possible today. With the current ubiquity of sexual stimuli, it is important to give youngsters every opportunity to make informed and considered choices.

Beneath the current preoccupation with sex is a dangerous yet unexpressed assumption--that the only way for men and women to relate to each other is sexually. Love and emotional intimacy are viewed exclusively in sexual terms. Such a premise not only impoverishes human relationships but has great significance for career opportunities for women. If it is generally believed that women and men cannot be friends (even close friends) without necessarily becoming sex partners, then women will be extremely limited in their access to positions of responsibility, prestige, and remuneration in a world where these positions are already held by men. The most strident voices protesting the admission of women into the ranks of the military, the police force, and the fire fighters, it will be recalled, focus their oposition on the fact that the sexes working in such close proximity for prolonged periods of time must inevitably become sexually involved.

Interestingly enough, the fact that our permissive society has made sex relatively easy to get has lessened the urgency to convert every relationship into a sexual one. In fact, the old warning, "Every man has but one thing in mind," is a distortion of reality and tends to give women an exaggerated sense of their own power. Learning early in life to integrate one's sexuality with other aspects of selfhood--in other words, to wear one's sexuality well--is the best defense against sexual exploitation at work. Becoming expert at something--vocationally or avocationally--is the best insurance young women can acquire for their future security and their roles as women and as workers.

Summary of Important Themes

Young women and men now face with equal urgency the need to prepare for the support of themselves and their dependents. At the stage of preparation, the notion of career-marriage conflict for women is a thing of the past, although still widely discussed. The current reality, given the continuing rate of inflation, is that nine out of ten women will work outside the home for part of their lives whether they are prepared or not. Career life planning for them, however, differs from that of men in the sense that counseling will be ineffective unless women are encouraged to rethink traditional family obligations and relationships with men. This holds true in the domestic sphere as well as in work settings. No matter how traditional their ultimate choice, it should result from a thoughtful consideration of alternatives nonexistent a decade ago.

Male attitudes are extremely critical because men's cooperation is needed both at home and in the marketplace if women are to carry their share of income-producing responsibilities. It is unreasonable to expect more women to work outside their homes without offering them an equal opportunity to do so. The logic is inescapable--to the extent women become wage-earners, men must become homemakers, unless home chores are performed by hired help. Because of the low status of "women's work," dual career relationships work best if the man has a strong sense of his own masculinity. There is no question but that families with two wage-earners have some logistical problems and role negotiation to explore. What is missing in the form of domestic services, however, can be compensated for in richer intellectual companionship and/or relief for the man who has, in the past, seen himself as the primary or even sole provider.

All adults influential in the lives of youth can further the ideal of sex equality by holding females to the same standards that males are required to meet. Rewards should not be forthcoming simply for being pretty, cute, or female. The fact that sexiness has currency cannot be denied, but women who are encouraged to view this as their primary attribute are being short-changed and will fail to make the demands of themselves that are necessary for directed effort. Women cannot have it both ways--they cannot expect to compete with men in all arenas and retain, at the same time, the special privileges and protective shields they have believed due them in the past. Young males must learn to value their female peers for their accomplishments as well as their sex appeal. Previous generations of women have not been blind to the income-producing potentialities of prospective mates nor should men today ignore the capacity of their future partners to make economic contributions so vital to the family unit. Lest this sound altogether too crass and calculating, it is important to add that the old-fashioned virtues of compassion, generosity, integrity, and commitment still lie at the foundation of loving relationships.

Imperatives for the Future of Sex-Fair Counseling

Four groups of people in educational settings can provide leadership in this period of transition: counselor educators, guidance directors, supervisors, and practicing counselors.

Counselor educators, who are presumed to be experts in the areas of counseling theory, research, education, and practice need to assume a proactive rather than reactive stance in this important matter. Avowed advocates for human self-determination, a surprising number were slow to recognize the legitimacy of ethnic minorities' rights, and are even now poorly informed on the nature of women's career development and work expectancy, and on strategies for helping reconcile multiple roles. Although Women's Studies programs have increased dramatically throughout the universities of the nation, departments of counselor education have been reluctant to add courses on counseling for changing sex roles, and those that have been added to the curriculum are generally electives, drawing mostly women.

An obvious prerequisite to sex-fair counseling is for counselor educators to recognize their own sexual biases and gaps in factual knowledge in regard to women's career development. Despite the fact that by virtue of their academic backgrounds and predisposition they support human rights philosophically, counselors enjoy no immunity from the heritage of sex-biased social conditioning to which we have all been subject. They must "work through" their unexamined assumptions in the same way as do their students and counselees.

Among some of the best examples of inservice education programs is one devised by Project Born Free. Strategies, experiences, exercises, and readings are related to specific goals, objectives, and outcomes. Moreover, these packages are designed for three educational levels: the university, secondary school, and elementary school. Materials are functional both for the professional and personal development of the faculty and for the preparation of counselors and supervisors in the field. For further information contact Dr. Larraine (Sunny) Hansen, Project Born Free, Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, 139 Burton Hall, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455 (612) 373-0202.

The next step is to build into the curriculum at least one required course devoted to the examination of the meanings of sexual identity, ways in which these meanings are changing, and implications for work/career and life counseling. The proliferation of research projects and informed speculation is nothing short of astonishing so that the problem becomes one of selection, not availability, of reading materials.

Guidance directors have opportunities to make policy decisions on a level that has the potential for bring about pervasive change in the philosophy and practice of counseling and reducing the negative impact of stereotypical views. Task forces charged with the scrutiny of assessment and evaluation instruments, vocational inventories, films, brochures, texts, and the like could identify sex bias while simultaneously raising the level of awareness of people with whom they interact.

Eliminating sex bias in actual practice is admittedly much more difficult. Counselors and supervisors, in their front line positions in daily contact with students, are clearly the most powerful influencers with the exception of parents and peers. Opportunities to participate in inservice workshops conducted in sequences and reinforced by follow-up experiences appear to be the most effective way to reach most individuals. It is essential that adequate time be provided for idea-sharing and small group discussions, and that workshop leaders be sensitized to the legitimacy of different views about gender-appropriate behavior and attitudes. The Department of Women's Studies on most university and college campuses is a good source for inservice assistance. Grants and contracts from a variety of funding agencies have resulted in the development of projects to facilitate sex-fair counseling. Individuals affiliated with higher education have been the primary recipients of these grants. Affirmative Action officers located in each school district and the Commission on the Status of Women in each state are additional sources of information.

In the case of students, the small group format is by far the best vehicle for helping them struggle with their emerging sexual identity in a social environment characterized by uncertainty. Same-sex groups are freer to enter the discussion, buoyed by a sense of shared problems and feelings and undistracted by concern over how they might be perceived by the other sex. Since girls and women are usually the most interested, the initial groups may be all female. Issues that arise can be used as preliminary discussion questions for all-male groups later in the program. Many males are, of course, sufficiently aware of changes in sex roles to be fully capable of generating their own discussion questions.

Despite an impressive array of research evidence to the contrary, gender-based myths appear to have a life of their own. It becomes, in the last analysis, the task of the adults who are closest to youngsters to interpret new ideas which have the potential to enhance self-concept and improve the capacity of young people to make choices and exercise independent control over their own lives.

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10 careers by special delivery

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CAREERS BY SPECIAL DELIVERY

Jo Ann Harris-Bowlsbey

This chapter provides a comprehensive look at the use of the computer in the delivery of career guidance services, built upon a rationale of student need, computer capabilities, and system effectiveness. Three general types of systems are described in detail: batch-processed systems, on-line vocational information systems, and on-line career guidance systems. The author outlines typical ways in which these systems are used in secondary school settings and analyzes the cost of computer-based guidance in terms of its component parts. Six major problems which are apparent at this stage of the development of the art are presented. The author concludes by stating imperatives which may help solve identified problems and which may create an even brighter future for the field.

Rationale for the Use of the Computer in Career Guidance

The computer has been used to help individuals with vocational choice-making since 1966. At the beginning of the period of development of systems, there was considerable concern about whether or not the computer should be used in counseling and guidance. Many feared that students would be dehumanized by computers, and even that some counselors would be replaced by them. After 12 years of experience with computer-based guidance systems, however, the evidence is clear that machines are neither dehumanizing students nor replacing counselors. Using the computer in career guidance can be grounded in at least three areas: the need for improved and increased career guidance, the capabilities of the computer to perform some significant guidance tasks, and evidence of effectiveness of the computer in the guidance field.

Need for improved career guidance

In one of the nation's most comprehensive studies of the career guidance knowledge and needs of youth, Prediger, Roth. and Noeth (1973) reported: "We believe that three vantage points for viewing student career development provide a consistent and dismal picture. If we were speaking of physical development rather than career development, we would describe American youth as hungry, undernourished, and physically reatrded" (p. 33). These three vantage points were what students say about their career development, what students have done about their career development, and what students know about career development. These areas were assessed by a nationwide sample of 32,000 students from grades 8 to 11. An instrument developed by the authors of this study, called the "Assessment of Career Development" (ACD), was administered to this sample.

Two tables from the study provide some representative responses from students about their perceived need for improved career guidance assistance.

Table 1. Student-Perceived Needs for Help

	Grade 8 "yes" responses			Grade 11 "yes" responses		
Area of Student Concern	%M	%F	%Total	%M	%F	%Total
Improving study skills	74	72	73	68	61	65
Improving reading skills	65	60	63	61	56	58
Improving math skills	71	74	73	63	58	60
Choosing courses	62	66	64	57	58	58
Discussing personal concerns	38	40	39	29	32	30
Discussing health problems	31	26	29	17	13	15
Making career plans	71	75	73	76	80	78
Obtaining money to continue education after high school	57	57	57	56	55	56
Finding after-school or summer work	72	73	73	64	70	67

Source: ACD Program Report No. 61, 1973, p. 15

Note from this table that "making career plans" is the area of highest student concern at the 11th-grade level, and that it ties in with the other significant concerns at the 8th-grade level. The data place this topic as one of much greater concern to this representative sample than "discussing personal concerns," for example, an area which has received a great deal of attention from school counselors.

Table 2. General Reactions to School Guidance Services

Overall, how much help with career (educational and job) planning has your school (teachers, counselors, principal, librarian, etc.) given you?

	Grade 8			Grade 11		
	%M	%F	%Total	%M	%F	%Total
A. None	25	24	24	20	15	17
B. Little	31	30	31	33	32	32
C. Some	33	34	33	36	39	37
D. A lot	12	12	12	11	15	13

Source: ACD Program Report No. 61, 1937, p. 15

Perhaps the most notable finding here is that 49-55% of students indicated that they had received either "none" or "little" assistance with career planning from all of the school resources combined.

What students have done about career development, that is, their degree of involvement with career planning activities, is likewise disappointing. Table 3 presents a summary of these data:

Table 3. What Students Have Done About Career Planning

Typical Activities	Response option	Grade 8			Grade 11		
		%M	%F	%Total	%M	%F	%Total
A. Activities related to students' 1st two occupational choices							
1. Discussed the jobs with a parent, relative or guardian.	A	19	14	17	11	6	9
	B	38	36	37	32	23	28
	C	43	50	47	56	71	63
2. Talked with workers in the jobs about how they came to be in the job.	A	49	52	50	43	40	41
	B	36	35	36	36	39	37
	C	15	13	14	21	22	22
3. Talked with a counselor or teacher about how my goals, interests and abilities relate to the jobs.	A	63	65	64	46	38	42
	B	28	26	27	37	39	38
	C	9	9	9	17	23	20
B. Activities related to career plans in general							
4. Discussed, in class, jobs related to the subject we were studying.	A	33	32	33	25	20	23
	B	48	48	48	47	49	48
	C	19	20	19	28	31	30
5. Took a course in school that studied several different types of jobs.	A	71	80	76	66	70	68
	B	22	16	19	26	23	25
	C	7	4	5	8	7	7
6. Read a job description from the school library or guidance office job files.	A	60	62	61	44	36	40
	B	28	28	28	37	37	37
	C	12	10	11	19	27	23
7. Took a tour through a local industry, business, hospital or office to observe what the various jobs were like.	A	32	37	34	41	42	41
	B	47	44	46	42	43	42
	C	21	18	20	17	16	16
8. Attend a "job fair" or "career day" where workers or employers talked about jobs.	A	78	82	80	67	63	65
	B	17	14	16	24	26	25
	C	5	3	4	9	10	10
9. Took part in an actual or a practice job interview.	A	75	80	78	55	54	55
	B	19	15	17	31	34	32
	C	6	4	5	14	12	13

Source: ACT Program Report No. 61, 1973, p. 24

In order to assess what students know about career planning, ACD developed a 40-item instrument to measure cognitive knowledge of the career planning process. Although systematic career guidance treatment would assume that all students should know the correct responses to these items by the end of the 11th grade, in actual fact, only 31% of the 11th-graders in the sample could answer more than 75% of the questions correctly. A final section of the instrument dealt with cognitive occupational knowledge, related to occupations in each of Holland's six clusters. Based on 72 items, less than 50% of the 11th-graders were able to answer more than three-fourths of the occupational characteristics items correctly.

A review of these data, and many more available from this study and in the National Assessment Study, raises the question of why this is the status of the career development of the nation's youth. The answer to this question seems to lie partly in an analysis of the responsibility for career guidance. Until the recent career education movement, the school counselor had sole responsibliity for assisting seocndary-school young people with career planning and development. In 1970, the nationwide ratio of public school counselors to students at the secondary level was 1:420. This mean reflects some situations, especially in the large cities of the nation, where the ratio is 1:1,000 and, of course, others where the ratio is 1:250.

Several factors have made impossible the delivery of adequate career guidance to secondary-level youth:

1. The number of young people to be helped in career planning by the counselor is prohibitive, especially if counselors continue to favor a one-to-one treatment mode;

2. Counselors have been inadequately prepared in their training to provide systematic career guidance help;

3. The job duties and priorities of counselors are inadequately defined and limited, leading to the expenditure of as much as 70% of their time in clerical, scheduling, and information-giving activities;

4. Even where priorities have been set for providing adequate career guidance services, counselors prefer to deal with personal concerns of young people and leave inadequate time for career planning activities.

Documentation of the need for increased and improved career guidance services for the nation's youth has been approached from two perspectives: the statement and performance of the students themselves, and the work tasks and priorities of public school counselors. A third documentation of career guidance needs comes from the opinion of professionals. In 1975 the author (Harris-Bowlsbey, 1975) did a study of career guidance needs for the National Institute of Education. One of the methods used in the study for the assessment of needs was the mailing of a questionnaire to the following groups of professionals: 985 randomly-selected members of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 50 state guidance supervisors, 118 APGA state and national branch presidents, 35 career development theorists and program developers, 150 vocational education leaders, 148 employers, 100 school board members, and 50 state directors of career education. The following table indicates by percentages the responses of this professional sample in regard to the need for increased and improved career guidance services for the nation's in-school youth and out-of-school youth and adults.

Table 4. Need for Career Guidance by Population (in percentages)

	Group	Counselors, Elementary 1	Counselors, Secondary 2	Counselors, College 3	Guidance Supervisors, State 4	Guidance Leaders 5	Career development theorists program developers 6	Voc. Ed. Leaders 7	Employers 8	School Board Members 9	Career Ed. Leaders 10	Counselors, undifferentiated 11	Total
In-School Youth	a. No need	3	2	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	3	2	1
	b. Moderate need	20	19	23	12	27	4	12	15	33	16	31	23
	c. Critical need	71	79	71	84	71	87	81	85	63	81	64	75
	No response	6	2	4	4	2	9	1	0	4	0	3	1
	N =	35	47	70	25	52	23	68	26	24	37	122	529
Out-of-School Youth and Adults	a. No need	3	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	3	1	1
	b. Moderate need	17	19	17	12	8	4	15	23	50	8	20	17
	c. Critical need	66	77	79	80	90	92	78	73	33	86	76	77
	No response	14	4	4	8	2	4	3	0	17	2	2	5

A fourth source of documentation for career guidance needs lies in the assumptions and tenets of career development theory. Developmental theory has several baseline assumptions: (a) that life can be divided into definable stages, (b) that each stage is characterized by specific developmental tasks and coping behaviors which should be mastered during that stage, (c) that future developmental tasks cannot be mastered until those which are prerequisite to it are mastered, and (d) that adjustment or maturity during a given life stage is equivalent to being able to cope successfully with the developmental tasks of that stage. Donald Super has made great contributions in the area of developmental theory related specifically to career choices and development. Super (1953, 1963, 1975) proposes that life can be divided into five life stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. Further, he defines five developmental tasks which relate particularly to the stages of exploration and establishment. Finally, he proposes more than 50 coping behaviors which relate to the five life stages.

Acceptance of this kind of developmental theory has several important implications for the need for career guidance programs and for the programs themselves. First, the theory implies that career development is a lifelong process which is characterized by the need for learning different skills at different life stages. Second, there is a clear implication that appropriate vocational maturity consists of mastering assigned tasks adequately during a given life stage. Third, there is no implication that these tasks and coping behaviors can be taught and learned. Finally, an inference can be drawn that the nation should be concerned about the development of its citizens' skills along a continuum of career development and vocational maturity just as it is already concerned about developmental mastery of mathematics, reading, and social coping skills. The conclusion which can be drawn is that all individuals need to have access to career guidance services at all life stages. The fact of this statement is borne out by the findings of the Project Talent Study (Cooley and Lohnes, 1968), the Career Pattern Study (Super and Zelkowitz, 1973), and the recent study done by the College Entrance Examination Board for the National Institute of Education (Arbeiter, 1976). The last study indicates that 76% of the nation's population from age 16 to 65 is in transition in terms of career and job counseling. The individuals surveyed in this study indicated high need for career guidance services, especially for information about occupations, jobs, and training. Their first choice of a way to receive this assistance was one-to-one counseling through community agencies or college counseling centers which were open at night.

If the thesis of the first pages of this chapter is accepted, i.e., that there is a critical need for increased and improved career guidance services for the nation's youth and adults, then we must give attention to the possible ways of meeting this need.

With the present priorities and funding levels of public education, it seem extremely unlikely that money will be appropriated to lower the counselor-student ratio significantly to give each counselor a smaller case load. A much more feasible solution to the problem appears to be to explore alternate cost-effective ways to deliver career guidance services which can be combined with one-to-one treatment. Task analysis and research are badly needed to determine which of the services related to career guidance must be provided by one-to-one, face-to-face counseling; by trained paraprofessionals either face-to-face or by telephone; in the group guidance or counseling sessions; through systematic curriculum; and through a variety of self-help methods including the computer.

Capabilities of the computer in career guidance

As mentioned earlier, during the early years of the use of the computer in career guidance counselors were very concerned that they might be replaced by machines. After 10 years of relatively successful experience with the computer in career guidance, this fear has been almost dissipated. The computer is now being viewed as it should be viewed--as a sophisticated paraprofessional which can provide valuable assistance in the performance of career guidance tasks. To add to the rationale for using the computer in the delivery of career guidance, it is appropriate to list some of the most significant capabilities for which a computer can be programmed:

1. The computer is capable of storing and retrieving extensive masses of data in inexpensive and instantaneously-accessible data files. In our field these data usually consist of descriptions of a large number of occupations (potentially more than 23,000), all four-year colleges and universities in the nation, more than 11,000 recognized technical and specialized schools, hundreds of graduate and professional schools, apprenticeships, military training options, financial aid programs, and local job openings. Further, given the availability of recent and accurate information, these files can be updated very quickly from a computer terminal, thus making updated information available much more quickly than is possible in printed publications.

2. The computer is capable of searching through these massive data files to identify a list of options (schools, occupations, financial aids, etc.) which have the precise characteristics desired by the user of the system. Searches which are done "on line" (at a terminal) can be programmed so that the user is constantly aware of the narrowing effect of each of his or her choices and can recycle with a different set of characteristics.

3. Given the storage of an individual user's school record, the computer can merge data about the user (i.e., grades, test scores, work experience, skills, interests, etc.) with data about occupations

and training opportunities in such a way as to create new, more meaningful data for the student while using the system.

4. Given a system with terminal devices, the computer can carry out personalized, structured interviews with an individual about career planning. Such interviews may include computer-assisted instruction on guidance topics, the administration and interpretation of testing instruments, simulation and gaming, and structured decision-making.

5. Given a system where data about student use are being stored, the computer can monitor a student's use of the system, his/her progress in career planning and decision making, and inconsistencies.

6. Given availability of terminals and sufficient computer power, a computer can serve many users simultaneously in a variety of places for many hours of the day with personalized selection of content within the system.

7. Given a system in which care is given to the development of text and data files, the computer can present vocational and career information and assistance in a totally objective nonbiased way, leaving the user with a high degree of self-responsibility and agency about choices.

8. Given a system which is developed to provide assessment and alternate treatments, the computer can assess an individual's relative position on a career planning continuum and provide

assistance and treatment related directly to individual needs.

9. Given the use of some of the most advanced techniques and terminals, the computer can control and deliver audio and visual material in conjunction with text.

Effectiveness of computer-based guidance systems

Finally, a rationale for using the computer in guidance can be built on evidence of its effectiveness through approximately 12 years of operation. It is not the purpose of this chapter to review the research related to the development and field trial of all computer-based guidance systems. For our purposes here, let the following broad statements in regard to effects suffice:

1. Computer-based systems are enthusiastically accepted and easily used by students without dehumanizing effects.

2. Students report the following types of positive effects: increase in self-knowledge; improvement of decision-making skills; assistance with crystallization of career plans; provision of sufficient and accurate educational and occupational information; motivation to engage in a variety of vocational exploratory behaviors after use of the system; fast, efficient retrieval of information; and preference for using the computer as a source of information over traditional means.

3. Data reveal the following types of positive effects: increase in cognitive knowledge about occupations and educational opportunities, increase in vocational maturity, and increase in

vocational exploration activities.

4. Parents report a higher level of involvement in their student's career planning as a result of home conversation about the use of computer-based systems and of printouts brought home.

5. Counselors report that the work load does not diminish but that the work tasks are at a more professional level. Students who might otherwise come seeking routine information seek counselor help with discrimination and choice-making at a much higher level of awareness.

Using the computer in career guidance services has been justified on three bases: the expressed and assessed needs of adolescents and adults for career guidance, the potential capabilities of the computer to perform guidance tasks, and the accumulated evidence of effectiveness of computer-based guidance systems. Having substantiated the need for and utility of computer-based guidance, attention will now be devoted to the types of computer-based systems which currently exist.

Types of Computer-Based Systems

The first invitational conference of developers of computer-based guidance systems was held in 1966. The systems which have developed since that date can be divided into three types: batch-processed vocational information systems, on-line vocational information systems, and on-line career development systems. The chronological development of systems was not necessarily in this order, since some very sophisticated systems were developed very early historically and some batch-processed systems have been developed very late historically.

Batch-Processed Vocational Information Systems

In batch-processed vocational information systems or "indirect inquiry systems" as they were called in the NVGA Commission's report on computer-based guidance (Harris, 1971), the user is not in direct communication with the computer. Rather, the user completes a questionnaire, listing characteristics desired in an occupation, college, or financial aid. This questionnaire is then sent to a central place for processing. As the computer "reads" the characteristics desired by the user, it searches a data file of possible options and selects and prints out those which have the appropriate combination of characteristics. The distinguishing features of this type of system are as follows:

1. The user is not in direct control of the computer and therefore lacks what Tiedeman calls "sense of agency" (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963).

2. The user is unaware of the narrowing effect which each of his/her chosen characteristics exercised on the search. For example, the student does not know that selecting the combination of "high income" and "helping others" reduces significantly the number of occupational options which might be considered.

3. The length of time between student request and computer response is relatively long. In the beginning of computer-based guidance, a "turn-around time" of two to four weeks was common. In the batch-processed system described below, this time is reduced to overnight, since the computer is owned by the school district and efficient means for collecting student questionnaires and for returning output have been developed at the local level.

4. The systems use a limited number of the computer's guidance capabilities; in fact, only the capabilities of storing and retrieving data files and of searching by specified combinations of characteristics have been utilized.

Batch-processing systems were popular in the early years of computer-based guidance, and there were approximately 15 commercial systems of this type. To the author's knowledge, the only remaining batch-processing system is the example offered here.

Example of Use of a Batch-Processing System. In Illinois approximately 20,000 students and adults in one school district are using a batch-processed computerized system operating from one small central computer. The consortium of users is made up of students from twenty junior high schools, ten senior high schools and one community college, inmates of three prisons, and clients of various participating community agencies. Each user pays $1.00 per year and has unlimited access to the system, that is, the user may submit information request forms throughout the year for different categories of information or for new and different file searches. The system contains nine modules of files which may be searched independently or in combinations requested by the user. These modules are:

1. Vocational interest testing
2. High school topics and orientation quiz for junior high students
3. National career descriptions
4. Military job descriptions
5. National job opening forecasts through 1985
6. Local area job information
7. Financial aids
8. Community college information and courses
9. National four-year college search and information

To use the system the user completes some forms, some of which are designed for optical scanning and others are designed to have the data transferred to key punch cards. These completed forms are picked up daily and taken to the central computer center where they are processed overnight. Printout is returned to the user's institution within 24 hours. The output may then be discussed by a counselor with the student or client or may be delivered directly to the user since printouts are quite self-explanatory. During its first year of operation, this batch-processed system provided 80,000 information reports to its users, that is, an average of four requests per user per year.

On-line Vocational Information Systems

Most computer-based guidance systems in the United States today are of this second type, also called "direct inquiry systems" by the NVGA Commission on computer-based guidance. Here the user operates a terminal device which is connected by cable or by phone line directly to a computer. Terminals are of two types--a typewriter or a cathode ray tube, a television-type device with a keyboard. These systems specialize in two primary functions: (1) quick retrieval of information for printout or display, and (2) sophisticated searching of data files by successive addition of characteristics desired. Some systems are capable of allowing the user to delete characteristics formerly chosen after seeing the consequences of choice, as well as to add successive variables.

The best known systems of this type have no computer-assisted instruction on guidance topics and relatively little interactive dialogue. They are designed to facilitate very quick access to data *per se*. Further they do not store a record about the user and therefore cannot personalize the information given, monitor the user's progress through the system, or make use of personal data. Data files may be national in scope or limited to a given state. Typical data files contain occupations and occupational descriptions, colleges and college program descriptions, graduate schools, technical and specialized schools, and financial aids. The characteristics of the on-line vocational information systems are as follows:

1. The user is in direct communication with the computer and has a high degree of control.

2. The system keeps the user aware continually of the effects

of choices and offers the posibility of remaking decisions and reordering priorities.

3. The user has immediate feedback, within milliseconds or seconds.

4. A wider range of computer capabilities is harnessed, adding online technology and interactive dialogue to information retrieval and file-searching.

Two Examples of the Use of On-Line Vocational Information Systems. Two quite different examples of the current use of on-line vocational information systems are provided here. In the first, a secondary school installs one or more terminals, either typewriter or cathode ray tube type, in its school building. These terminals may be connected to the school district's own computer or to a time-sharing computer which is owned by a for-profit corporation or a not-for-profit consortium. In the latter case, the school district pays for computer time as well as phone lines and terminal devices. Typically, terminals are placed in the guidance area, in the library, or in a specially designated career resource library. With one system the student may work at the terminal itself. With another system the student needs to do some planning on paper before using the terminal, such as deciding which variables to use for an occupational or college search.

It is very rare for a counselor to assist a student to use a computer-based system. Such assistance is most typically provided by a paraprofessional in a career resource library, who makes appointments, gives students any necessary instructions, alerts the computer center in case of technical difficulty, and helps the user find additional, appropriate resource materials. Students are typically scheduled for one period (40-50 minutes) of use at a time and may return multiple times to use the system. In some schools all students or selected groups of students are scheduled to use the computer system; in other schools all use is voluntary. In many schools, use of the system is entirely divorced from ongoing one-to-one counseling, curricular work, or group guidance. In a few schools, use of the computer is integrated into a planned system of career guidance services.

What might a student do during a scheduled hour of use of an on-line vocational information system? He/she might complete a questionnaire to assist with the initial development of a list of occupations for exploration, enter the code numbers of selected occupations and recall descriptions, enter a series of characteristics desired in a school or an occupation and receive a list of possibilities, enter the code number of a college and get a description, compare up to three colleges on the basis of selected characteristics, or receive a list of local job opportunities.

As a result of Department of Labor funding and impetus, nine states now have statewide on-line computer-based vocational information systems. In contrast to the single school or district which has leased or purchased a system for its own students, these states provide systems tailored to specific local needs through a statewide consortium of agencies on a not-for-profit basis. These state systems are heavily involved in both major aspects of computer-based guidance development: development and maintenance of data files and delivery of the system which includes those data files. Heavy emphasis is given to the development and updating of accurate local data, localized even by region within a state. All of these states have adopted one or some combination of already-existing computer-based guidance systems to deliver the locally developed data. Some of the states have added to existing systems in order to meet needs at the local level.

Schools and agencies of all kinds have access to the statewide system by paying user consortium fees, which often include the cost of computer time, plus the cost of phone lines and terminals to bring the system to the local site. The central consortium agency supports the operation through constant data development and updating, staff training and support at user sites, assistance with technical problems, and system evaluation.

The use of the system is very similar to that of the single-school or district operation. The data received at the terminal are different in that they have been localized for a given state. Occupations--their work tasks, employment outlook, salaries, etc.--are described as they exist in a given region of that state. A statewide file of schools is available instead of a national file. An interesting fact about the statewide information systems is that parallel systems have been developed which do not make use of the computer; rather, files have been printed in books, and search strategies have been converted to keysort card form.

On-Line Career Guidance Systems

Three systems exist in the United States today which have attempted to provide career guidance to individuals beyond the information-retrieval and file-searching capabilities of the on-line vocational information systems. These systems give the user the same capabilities as the vocational information systems; but, in addition, they typically include (a) direct or indirect teaching of strategies for planful decision-making; (b) attention to values as a factor to be considered in the making of vocational choices, in addition to interests and aptitudes; (c) storage of a student record so that personal data can be recalled to assist in vocational exploration; (d) storage of data in the student record about past uses of the system so that the student can review the process; (e) on-line administration and interpretation of instruments to assist with vocational planning, such as assessment of career development needs or interests; and (f) use of simulation and gaming. These systems also typically contain a very large amount (in the range of 5-20 hours) of interactive dialogue in the form of computer-assisted instruction, simulation, and on-line testing, offering the student a very high degree of control over the system and its multiple branching options.

The hallmark of these systems is that they intend to give relatively more of the overall career guidance task to the computer. They address topics and provide experiences which might also be provided by counselors through group counseling, group guidance, or instruction. Because these systems provide so much more content, they also require more terminal time per student and more computer power for delivery. Further, these systems have been designed for more sophisticated terminals that include the light pen and complementary microfiche readers. These factors significantly increased their cost.

Examples of On-Line Career Guidance Systems. In a typical secondary school installation of this type, the computer software is implemented in a large computer owned or leased by a relatively large school district. Phone lines run from this computer to terminals which may be located in 5-100 schools. Depending upon the guidance system chosen, an alternate arrangement might be to have mini-computers in each school building with four to eight terminals attached to each. To serve the needs of students adequately, there should be at least one terminal for each 500 students. Since these systems contain a large amount of content, time for student use has to be carefully planned. Best usage will occur if students are allowed to use the system by appointment during class time or through a systematic career guidance program which provides orientation, follow-through, and individualized attention as needed.

The system offers the student a large variety of alternatives such as learning decision-making skills, learning how occupations can be grouped, browsing in occupations, developing lists of occupations related to personal characteristics, comparing two or more occupations on given variables, planning courses of study, trying simulated problems about work tasks, assessing values, and predicting future success in chosen course work. The system typically will allow an individual to choose an entry point at will or to review past uses of the system and proceed forward in some systematically-designed way. At least one such system, using a student-completed questionnaire that assesses the student's progress in career planning, suggests an entry point and route through the system. Successive uses of the system can then be monitored in light of the suggested route.

A very common use of on-line career guidance systems, both at the secondary and community college level, is their incorporation into a planned curriculum. Class sessions are used for presenting topics such as personal characteristics and their relationship to vocational choice or job-seeking and holding skills, or for group discussion. The material in the computer system is assigned as homework, and the computer experience is used as a basis for

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class discussion and individual counseling, which provides even more personalized assistance with the further exploration and implementation of vocational and educational choices.

Another common use of on-line career guidance systems is in settings like community colleges and community agencies where the transiency of the population makes the provision of career guidance difficult. Since computer terminals can operate 24 hours per day and can be placed in a wide variety of settings (such as dormitories, libraries, student unions, and career resource centers), the computer-based system can provide a high level of assistance when and where the student has time for it, with no support from counselors unless students specifically seek it.

Cost Considerations

As the reader might anticipate, the per-hour cost of delivering computer-based vocational information or guidance increases with the sophistication of the system. When considering the cost of a computer-based system, the following components must be assessed:

1. Computer time and power. Unfortunately, computer programs are only minimally transportable across the hardware manufactured by various vendors. For example, if a computer-based guidance system is designed for an IBM computer, making the program run on a Univac machine will be a significant conversion effort. For that reason, first-level questions are, "What kind of computer does the school district have?" and "Which computer-based systems will

run on this kind of computer?" These questions alone may determine which system a school district will select, simply because undertaking a conversion or changing brands of computers may be totally unfeasible. If the school district does not have a computer, or a computer-based system is desired which will not run on the school district's computer, then the district must consider the following options: (1) leasing computer time and power from another institution which has the desired type of computer with some computer power still available, (2) buying computer time from a computer-based guidance system which also offers the services of a time-sharing network, or (3) purchasing a mini- or maxi-computer for the sole purpose of delivering career guidance.

The cost of these proposed alternatives varies widely. If, for example, a school district already has a large computer to which a guidance system can be added as one more program in a library of programs offered to users, the cost of computer power will be minimal and the guidance program may not be charged directly for it at all. Leasing computer time and power from a time-sharing network or another institution represents a middle level of cost; no precise figures can be given since the cost of time-sharing varies widely. The highest level of cost for computer time and power results from leasing or purchasing a machine which is totally dedicated to the career guidance task. Obviously, however, the more terminals that can be connected to such a machine, the lower the per-user/per-hour cost becomes.

2. Computer software. Two kinds of software must be considered here: the career guidance system itself and the additional support software which may be necessary in order to run the system. The vocational information and career guidance systems described vary widely in cost. Some are sold for a relatively low one-time fee; others are leased for a stipulated period of time before perpetual license is granted; others require a continuous lease payment. These cost figures range from a low of approximately $1,000 for outright purchase to a continual lease fee of approximately $9,000 per year. Over and above these costs there may be need to obtain additional vendor-provided software which handles the interaction between the computer itself and associated terminal devices.

3. Terminal devices. Some computer-based systems are integrally tied to the terminal devices of one computer manufacturer while other systems have been modified to operate on at least two or three types of terminals. A prospective site may be able to choose between a low-cost typewriter terminal or a higher-cost cathode ray tube terminal of one particular manufacturer because the desired system makes heavy use of a light pen which is available from one vendor only. Ultimately a decision must be made about the kind and number of terminals needed in order to serve the student body adequately. Usually terminals are leased by the month because

of relatively rapid technological changes. It is certainly worth investigating the purchase of a terminal, however.

4. Communication from computer to terminals. Terminals which are placed within 2,000 feet of the computer can be connected by cable, which has a one-time purchase price. Terminals which are placed farther away, however, must be connected by phone lines. The cost of these lines is dependent upon (a) the distance of the computer from the terminals; (b) the speed (i.e., 1200, 2400, 4800 baud) of the line required in order to transmit data at an acceptable rate; (c) the requirement of the terminal for a dedicated leased phone line or a dial-up line, with costs running during connection time only; and (d) the possibility of multi-dropping phone lines, that is, having and paying for one dedicated line from which one or more branching lines run to different installations. Phone line costs may also include the cost for data sets and computer parts.

5. Personnel. The use of a computer-based guidance system also has implications for personnel. If the system is implemented in the school district's own computer, some programmer time will be needed in order to maintain the system, including ongoing operation and file updating; this may require as much as a half-time systems programmer. If the system is one which makes new development and modification possible, even more programmer time may be needed for these functions. Almost without exception,

computer-based systems are designed so that they are very easily usable by students, and no professional counselor time should be needed to assist or supervise student use. Especially in secondary school settings, a clerical or paraprofessional person should be partially assigned to the system. This person should schedule student use, respond to questions or difficulties, and interface with the computer center in regard to hours of operation or technical problems. In many secondary school settings, the paraprofessional is also in charge of the career resource center. This type of staffing is ideal since this person can help the student find additional resources after using the computer terminal.

Guidance professional time must be spent, however, in the following functions: (a) inservice training of guidance staff; (b) careful planning for incorporating the computer-assisted guidance system into the total guidance program; (c) publicity about availability of the system to students, parents, and community; and (d) liaison with faculty and administration in order to achieve and maintain psychological and financial support for the system. If local data bases are being built, professional time will be required to design and oversee the data collection process, and clerks will be needed for the entry of data.

6. Ongoing maintenance of text and data files. The text and data files in computer-based guidance systems need constant surveillance and updating. With some systems all maintenance is done at the local

site; with other systems periodic updates are provided by the source of distribution. In the former case, additional personnel time will be required for the collection of data. In the latter, money must be budgeted to pay for these periodic updates, the cost of which varies considerably from system to system. In either case, files and text must be maintained in order to preserve the usefulness and credibility of the system.

The total cost of a computer-based guidance system is the total of all of the variables listed above. The cost of each of these individual variables will have a wide range dependent upon the site and the requirements of a particular system. Systems currently on the market publicize costs ranging from $2.00 to $6.00 per student hour. While this seems like a high price tag, one-to-one counseling is costing from $12 to $15 per hour. This is not to infer that counselors should be replaced by machines. Rather, the computer should be given those guidance tasks which it can do well so that counselors can have more time to provide services which require human sensitivity. Accepting this position, however, means that computer assisted guidance systems must be "sold" to school administrators and boards on the basis that they provide increased and improved career guidance services to youth, but at extra cost. With today's competition for decreasing amounts of funding, this is a very difficult sales task.

Issues and Problems in Regard to the Use of the Computer in Career Guidance

The most critical issue in regard to implementing computer-based guidance is gaining the support and involvement of counselors and counselor supervisors. There appear to be several reasons why involvement with computer-based guidance systems has been at a less-than-optimal level:

1. In keeping with Holland's theory, counselors are more interested in person-to-person relationships than in technology and machine-person relationships;

2. Counselors are less interested in providing vocational information and career guidance than in other aspects of the counseling and guidance task;

3. Some counselors fear replacement by machines;

4. Some counselors believe that students are being dehumanized by receiving assistance from machines rather than from counselors;

5. If money is available, some counselors prefer that it be spent on additional staff rather than on technology;

6. Sometimes computer-based systems are installed by data processing personnel or administrators who, in their eagerness to have them implemented, neglect to involve counselors in the decision-making and planning process.

A second problem in regard to the implementation of computer-based guidance systems is incorporating them adequately into the total systematic career guidance program. When and if counselors do accept and support such a system, a common phenomenon occurs: There is a tendency to delegate the whole career guidance task to the computer. Batch-processed and on-line vocational information systems provide only information. For some students, information _per se_ is sufficient for the making of satisfying vocational and educational choices. For most students, however, information alone is not enough, and other essential elements of a career guidance program must be provided. Some of these components are (a) self-information, i.e., interests, aptitudes, and values, as they relate to vocational choice; (b) information about the organization of the world of work and characteristics of occupations; (c) deliberate teaching of decision-making; (d) assistance with reality testing and evaluation of tentative choices; and (e) assistance with implementation of choices. Even with on-line career guidance systems which address some of these components, additional assistance in a one-to-one and/or group mode is highly desirable.

A third problem and issue in regard to computer-based guidance systems is the initial collection and continuing maintenance of data files, including files about occupations, two- and four-year colleges, graduate schools, technical and specialized schools, local jobs, apprenticeships, financial aids, and military programs. Inaccurate data delivered by a computer may have a greater negative effect on students than the same data delivered in a book, since computers have an aura of authority. Further, it seems to be a crime of high order to provide poor information through such a sophisticated medium.

At the present time, each of the existing systems is collecting data in its own way--a very expensive and inefficient kind of operation. There is a critical need for the establishment of a central agency for collecting national data; these data could then be adapted for individualized use in each system. Individual sites, regions, and states would still need to appropriate funds for data collection at the local level. The problem is considerably more complex than funding, however. Occupational information, especially if the files exceed the common occupations found in the Occupational Outlook Handbook, is very difficult to develop. It is difficult to get high-percentage returns from direct mailings to institutions, which are asked to provide data in so many forms for so many different purposes. It is also difficult to get the organizations that collect data to release them to developers of computer-based systems in machine-readable form.

A fourth issue relates to measuring the effectiveness of computer-based guidance. In all probability this problem is no more severe for computer-delivered systems than for human-delivered systems. In either case, the profession has several nagging problems: (a) determination of desired outcomes of a career guidance system: vocational maturity, long-range satisfaction, short-range placement, long-range stability of plans--just to cite a few examples; (b) development of a research design and plan which can be implemented in the world of schools; (c) identification and selection of instruments to measure change at a time when all such instruments are in an experimental state; and (d) counselor interest, time, and expertise to conduct evaluative studies.

The fifth problem to be mentioned here has already been introduced in an earlier section, that of being able to afford computer-based guidance systems. Since it is undesirable to think of computer technology as a substitute for counselors, computer technology must be viewed as an add-on cost which will enhance existing services, reach a larger number of individuals for more hours per day in diverse locations, provide more efficient access to quality data, and hook into a wider variety of cognitive learning styles. These are powerful reasons for adding computer-based delivery to an organized set of guidance services, but reasons which are exceedingly hard to sell in a decade when "frills" are being cut.

A sixth and final problem with computer-based guidance is the frustration and difficulty of implementing and operating the system. This problem represents a variety of components: (a) the complexity of the delivery system itself, (b) the failure of some distributors of computer-based systems to provide adequate technical support for their products because of very limited resources, (c) lack of sufficient time or experience of data processing personnel in local sites, and (d) lack of understanding of technology on the part of counselors. These factors in combination can cause considerable frustration, especially at the beginning of an installation. If problems cannot be solved quickly, student and counselor morale suffers. Since problems can occur in the software, the hardware, or the phone lines and data sets, it is easy for individuals involved to pass responsibility to another party, and it is extremely difficult to get all of the responsible parties to work together to solve the problems.

Imperatives for Computer-based Guidance Systems

The following imperatives are stated with three purposes in mind: (1) that they constitute at least a measure of solution to the problems and issues delineated in the previous section; (2) that they serve to push the art of computer-based guidance forward; and (3) that they indicate with whom the responsibility lies for responding to each imperative.

Imperative 1: Inservice and preservice training programs for counselors and counselor educators must include instruction about and demonstration of computer-based guidance systems. The most obvious way to deliver inservice training is through local, regional, and national workshops. Such workshops could be held in local school districts, at regional or state conferences, through educational programs already offered by computer vendors and publishers, or prior to national conventions of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. Participants should have their expenses paid for attendance and should also be able to elect graduate credit or continuing education unit credit.

In order to make such instruction possible, a variety of individuals must assume responsibility. Developers of computer-based systems must provide quality training materials for their individual systems. Computer vendors and guidance software vendors must cooperate in providing computer terminals, phone lines, and computer power to run demonstrations during such training sessions. Administrators and counselor supervisors in local school districts must positively reinforce the value of training and provide financial support for staff development either at home base or at workshops. Counselors must be open to learning new techniques and incorporating new technologies in their work.

Inclusion of training about computer-based guidance in preservice education is more complex. A variety of approaches is needed: a brief introduction to the concepts of computer use in guidance in introductory courses required for certification, such as "Principles of Guidance"; a more detailed treatment of rationale, objectives, research, available systems, and demonstrations in the required course at the master's level, usually called "Career Information and Activities"; and, finally, a one-semester advanced elective course which studies systems in detail and provides instruction and experience in the development of computer-based systems. The first two approaches would guarantee that some professionals will be specifically trained for managing existing systems and developing new ones.

In order to make changes in existing counselor education programs, counselor educators and certifying bodies must recognize the need for curriculum in this area. Counselor educators could make most of the changes mentioned at the local level by including additional material in already-existing courses. The development of new courses might take the permission of campus curriculum committees or of state and regional accrediting bodies. If counselor educators do not develop awareness of the need to make changes, accrediting bodies could be very helpful by making recommendations in this regard.

Imperative 2: Inservice and preservice training programs for counselors and counselor supervisors must include instruction about systems design and task and function analysis. Systems design is a tool of science and technology. Many counselors have had difficulty in accepting or making use of this tool. Yet, the total career guidance program needs to be designed in a systematic flow; alternate modes of delivery need to be considered; guidance tasks should be delivered through one-to-one counseling, group counseling, group guidance, the curriculum, and the computer in the most cost-effective way. Helping counselors to become comfortable with these concepts relates again to preservice and inservice training. Units on systems design need to be incorporated into counselor education courses. Career guidance should be taught as a coordinated system of services which is based upon developmental theory. Counselors-in-training should carry out assignments which cause them to think in systems-analysis terms and to design programs for their own setting. In order to achieve these goals, the same individuals cited in Imperative 1 must assume responsibility.

Imperative 3: Developers of computer-based systems and appropriate Federal agencies must cooperate in collecting and packaging data in machine-readable form in order to avoid duplication of cost and effort and to improve the quality of data files. The primary responsibility for meeting this imperative seems to lie with three kinds of agencies: Federal agencies, especially the United States Office of Education and the United States Department of Labor; developers of computer-based systems; and not-for-profit agencies and organizations which collect data from their membership. The United States Office of Education and the United States Department of Labor have the potential to organize data files which they already collect and make them available in machine-readable form. The Office of Education, for example, collects information about two-year colleges, four-year colleges, and post-secondary institutions which provide vocational training. These files are in machine-readable form, but currently are difficult to obtain. The Department of Labor, as the biblical source of national occupational information, is in a unique position to make this information readily available in machine-readable form. Both agencies could provide an invaluable service by inviting developers of computer-based systems to discuss their needs for data in an attempt to meet these needs better.

Developers of computer-based systems are already sharing some data files. Increased cooperation among them could reduce duplication of effort and the tremendous cost of data development. Some critical data files, especially those for four-year colleges and graduate and professional schools, are collected and updated by not-for-profit agencies and boards. Some of these organizations have been extremely cooperative in sharing their data; others have not. An increased level of cooperation between developers and these agencies could substantially improve data files, reduce their cost, and alleviate the present demand on colleges and graduate institutions to complete so many data-collection forms for so many different users of the same data.

Imperative 4: Funding must be made available at state and Federal levels to continue to evaluate the effectiveness of the present systems and to develop new systems which will make good guidance use of the constantly improving technology. Considerable research has been conducted on individual systems. Future research needs to address (a) comparison of the effectiveness of batch-processed systems, on-line vocational information systems, and on-line career guidance systems; (b) comparison of modes of delivery of career guidance services in terms of effectiveness and cost, i.e., computer delivery alone, computer and counselor delivery together, computer and group guidance delivery together; and (c) analysis of functions provided best by computer, by counselor, through the curriculum, or through group guidance.

Since research is a very expensive pursuit and all computer-based systems are currently struggling for survival, at least some percentage of the cost of research needs to be borne by state, Federal, and private foundation funding. Developers of systems must also show a high level of commitment to evaluation by appropriating staff time and allocating as many resources to this function as possible.

Since the life of a computer program is considered to be five to seven years and both computer and guidance technology continue to change rapidly, it is imperative that developers be conceptualizing a system which will be cost-feasible and technically possible five years in the future. Such future systems will undoubtedly make much heavier use of graphics and simulations and of audio and visual components than do present systems. Technology will make delivery of career guidance possible on a home computer or TV set. Although it is imperative that new systems be developed, doing so out of the income from the sale or lease of existing systems is extremely difficult. Significant funding assistance is needed from Federal and state agencies, private foundations, and from the computer vendors themselves.

Imperative 5: The cost of computer-based guidance systems must be made affordable through a variety of possible approaches. Computer-based guidance is currently costing approximately two dollars to four dollars per student hour at the terminal. In terms of the long-range value of making good educational and vocational choices, this price does not seem high to the author. To school districts struggling with their budgets to buy new educational and occupational information reference books every two years, however, this price may seem exorbitant.

Responsibility for making computer-based career guidance affordable lies with several parties: parents, school administrators, computer vendors, guidance professional associations, developers, and funding agencies. In some studies of computer-based guidance systems, parents have said that they would pay for that service above and beyond their tax bill in order to make it available to their youngsters. Perhaps schools, developers, and hardware/software vendors need to launch a concerted effort to inform parents more fully about these systems. Perhaps then parents would help pay the bill or would insist that computer-based systems have a high priority in the local school's budget.

School administrators, if properly informed about the value of computer-based guidance, might be willing to give high priority to such systems in the annual budget and might find some way to effect cost efficiencies in other areas of the budget. Guidance professional associations could help by continuing to lobby for new legislation in which computer-based systems are specifically designated as a valid way to spend monies received under the legislation.

Computer vendors could help by providing educational discounts on hardware used for career guidance purposes and by making continuing efforts to reduce the cost of computer hardware. Developers bear a responsibility to price systems at levels which schools can afford while still receiving sufficient income to maintain and evaluate their systems.

Finally, funding agencies bear a responsibility to be informed about the value of computer-based guidance and to be willing to continue to fund its operation and development even though it is no longer considered to be highly innovative. Funding agencies might make regional data processing centers available which could serve many users, thus reducing the per-student cost. They might also finance studies which attempt to find ways to deliver such systems less expensively.

Imperative 6: A high level of guidance and technical support must be provided to sites which implement computer-based guidance. A high level of support means a high level of resources. This implies that computer-based systems will have to be distributed by organizations or corporations which can marshall such resources. Systems which are supported by a small team with a small budget are not likely to succeed. The imperative therefore implies that developers must either be capable of a high level of support or must find a source of distribution for their product which can marshall such support necessary to live through the beginning slow period experienced by all systems. The responsibility for a high level of distribution might fall with publishers of guidance materials, state or Federal agencies, software or hardware vendors, not-for-profit corporations in the guidance field, or time-sharing networks. Any of these groups will need to evidence a fairly high willingness to take a business risk and to invest money in promotion which may not be recovered for a one- to two-year period. Distributors must be staffed adequately to provide intensive inservice training of guidance personnel in schools as well as patient and effective technical support, especially during the period of installation and initial operation.

Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the present state of the art of the use of the computer in career guidance services. This overview included a rationale for using the computer, based upon the need for increased and improved services, the capabilities of the computer, and evidence of effectiveness of such systems. Presently available systems were categorized into three groups: batch-processed systems, on-line vocational information systems, and on-line career guidance systems. The characteristics of each type of system were reviewed, and typical ways such systems are used in secondary schools were described. Also enumerated were the elements which contribute to the total cost of a computer-based installation. Six major problems in relating to the delivery of computer-based guidance were identified.

The chapter concluded with a statement of six imperatives that not only provide possible solutions to the problems but also speak to actions that persons responsible for computer-based guidance should take to make it a viable delivery system both now and in the future.

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11 career resource centers

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CAREER RESOURCE CENTERS

Thomas J. Jacobson

The establishment and operation of career resource centers is presented in this chapter as a dramatic series of events that has set into motion a total revision of the way student services are provided for students. The author traces the development of career resource centers and examines their brief eight-year history in terms of their effects on existing student services programs. Drawing on his extensive experience, he sheds light on a number of administrative and policy changes which have taken place: program needs vs. student needs, intermittent vs. continuous service, counselor vs. student responsibility. The author believes that the career resource center is an imperative for guidance because of its recent development into a more broadly based human resources center. He concludes with a series of recommendations for people who currently operate such centers as well as those who are interested in doing so.

Career Resource Centers

How would you like to come upon a simple, inexpensive, efficient, effective organizational structure for offering guidance services that will increase your staff effectiveness; provide for staff development; stimulate the use of differentiated staffing; enhance your public relations with students, staff, and other pupil service workers; and bring about administrative support for your guidance program in the form of increased budgets, staff, and operational space in the educational plant? Does this kind of an offer attract your attention? It should. And you are probably wondering what it will take, how much it will cost, and whether it is possible for you to implement this kind of an operation in your system. You're probably thinking that such a strategy must be complicated--that it is expensive, time consuming, and probable unattainable. On the contrary, this system is simple, easy to establish, and inexpensive, and can be accomplished with a little imagination and creative thinking. This system is known as a career resource center.

A career resource center is a delivery system that provides students from junior high school to adult education and community agencies with continuous exposure and orientation to career information, counseling, individual appraisal, and placement, and promotes awareness of other training and educational programs available to them. The center is usually a large room filled with media and materials and staffed with professional and paraprofessional guidance personnel. In contrast to the usual guidance suite that is parcelled off into small individual offices, it has large open space and may or may not have enclosed individual offices. Career resource centers started in junior and senior high schools and have now spread to community colleges, adult schools, colleges, communities, and government agencies.

The purpose of this chapter is to trace the rapid development of career resource centers and to describe the effects that they have had on existing student services programs in educational institutions from elementary to college levels, as well as in community agencies. The development of career resource centers will be covered in a historical fashion although these centers are only approximately eight years old.

The movement of student services from a one-to-one relationship of professional and student in a small office to a large open space or career resource center was a dynamic series of events that has set into motion a total revision of the major way that student services are provided to students. It has altered the philosophical foundation of the student services concept, and has provided a facility that fosters innovation, experimentation, and revision of ongoing student services programs. What was intended to be a career component tacked on to an existing student services program has become a tail that is wagging the dog in a more positive direction. It is difficult to comprehend how a change from one type of facility to another can produce so many conditions that stimulate the development and operation of more effective student services programs.

I have visited over 400 operational career resource centers in various stages of development, and I have yet to meet any staff who are involved in these centers who would advocate eliminating them and returning to small offices. In fact, they wonder how they ever operated without a center. This support comes from professionals, paraprofessionals, students, and parents, making the career resource center an imperative for guidance that merits the consideration of the guidance program administrator and operator.

The casual observer of a career resource center may fail to see that its simplicity masks a system that is based solidly on vocational development theory research (Ginsberg, et al., 1951; Miller & Form, 1951; Super, 1953). Career resource centers are responsive to the theory that career development is a continuous process with specific periods and stages that occur over time, and requires complementary services for students offered on a continuing basis. The main reason that career resource centers have proliferated is that they are responsive to student needs. If they were not, they would not exist in such significant numbers or be increasing so rapidly.

Background

Certain components of career resource centers have existed for some time in operational pupil services programs--counseling, the occupational and educational information library, individual appraisal, educational and vocational placement, and, in some cases, follow-up. What is unique about the career resource center is that it has brought together all of these fragmented services into an operational system that is organized for, and responsive to, the needs and interests of the services user, rather than those of the services provider. In order to understand how the career resource centers came into being, it is necessary to review what was happening in student services programs at the end of the 60's when the career resource center began to develop as an alternative delivery system and a new imperative for guidance.

The Student Services Model of the 50's and 60's

In past years student services programs in most junior high schools, high schools, and colleges functioned on the concept of one-to-one interaction between counselor and student. This was a clinical model developed in the university setting that was, for the most part, underwritten by Title V National Defense Education Act funds. A majority of the initial NDEA Institute enrollees were teachers who were accustomed to working with large groups of students. The counseling and guidance movement of the late 50's and early 60's challenged large-group functioning and, responding to the humanistic movement of that time, emphasized instead the interpersonal, individualized relationship of the counselor with a single student. One-to-one counseling became the major focus of most counseling and guidance programs. Group activities and processes were not excluded from programs and sometimes included in classwork, but few counselors in training acquired group leadership skills. Most practicum facilities in universities were designed almost exclusively for one-to-one counseling, and secondary schools followed this university model. The available facilities, then, greatly determined what, when, where, and how student services would be provided in the guidance and counseling program.

Between 1958 and 1970 it was possible to drive up to the flagpole in front of almost any secondary school and find on one side of the base of the flagpole the administrative offices, and on the other the counseling and guidance offices. The counseling and guidance suites typically consisted of a small reception area and individual offices for the counselors. The operation of a guidance and counseling program was analagous to the operation of a general store. Students who wanted something got a pass to see the counselor, and the counselor would tell them what they needed to know. The majority of referrals to the counselor were initiated by the counselor. Priority in counseling and guidance programs continued to be the same as that initiated under NDEA Title V--the identification and encouragement of talented youth for enrollment in college. The program worked well for those whom it was intended: the college-bound, their parents, and the counselor who wanted close interpersonal relationships on a one-to-one basis. Counselors as a group were not accountable to all of their students, and the system was for the most part satisfactory.

The end of the 60's brought an abrupt change in attitudes and expectations. The overemphasis on college started to be challenged. The cry for accountability in education in general, and counseling and guidance programs in particular, became a steady theme. The satisfactory system no longer seemed as satisfactory. The "heat" on counselors increased not only from the community but also from fellow educators who resented having counselors meet with individual students in complete privacy while they met with close to 200 students per day in large groups. It also became apparent that the high counselor/student ratio precluded spending long hours with individual students if a counselor was responsible for 350 to 450 students. In fact, with a 1/450 counselor/student ratio, the counselor could only spend 2-1/2 hours per year with each student if it was a requirement to spend time with all students. Counselors began to put in longer hours, to try to squeeze groups of students into their offices, or to plan programs in the classroom as a way of establishing better communication and better rapport with both students and teachers. Counselors saw that they needed more help. Initially, they tried to fill this need through additional counselors. This practice, however, met with resistance because the additional counselors were pushed into the same ineffectual mold; and the reduction of the counselor/student load from 1/450 to 1/400 didn't seem to make much difference.

A review of traditional services offered at that time shows an overabundance of one-to-one counseling, some testing and information-giving, and little placement other than college placement. The services offered seemed to be determined by the facilities and the past experience and training of the staff, and were based largely on the needs of providers of services rather than on the changing needs of recipients. The "general store" approach wasn't working. It was clear that a "supermarket" approach was necessary if guidance and counseling were to remain part of the educational scene. Usually, one person on a staff could see the need for change and was ready to bring about that change--not always the leader, and not always the expected. It was clear to a few staff members that a change in facilities could bring about a change in the provision of student services and hopefully increase program effectiveness.

The funding for guidance and counseling began to dwindle in the late 60's at about the same time that the need for change became evident. There was substantial agreement that change was needed, but financial support was limited. Change in the past had always been brought about by massive government funding, and it was clear that money was not going to be forthcoming. Any change would have to come from within, using local staff and resources.

A decrease in enrollment accompanying the demand for accountability released new space for student services. The new facility was usually a classroom--a barren classroom that nobody wanted. The career resource center came about from trial-and-error field testing, step-by-step. Effective systems and procedures were validated as they were developed through student use. The general store of guidance services really did become a supermarket. Stock was added to the shelves slowly, and out of necessity. Nontraditional personnel were pressed into service. As it became apparent that students wanted more services than just counseling, the guidance clerical staff assumed more duties in the career resource center, although they avoided doing "professional" counseling or test interpretation. Tasks that had been handled by the clerical staff were, in many cases, shifted to student and parent volunteers.

Career Resource Center Development

The early 70's saw the establishment of career resource centers in secondary schools across the country. From the secondary schools they spread to junior high schools, community colleges, colleges, and community agencies. What is most interesting is not that they spread but how they spread.

Through research grants, through government grants, through funded programs? No. By word-of-mouth, by local funding, and by example. The centers were so effective that they naturally gained fame and flourished through the grapevine.

Accountability was obvious the minute a career resource center was opened. Even with scant furnishings and limited materials, the new facility was more than students had experienced before and they crowded in. Research in "A Study of Career Centers in the State of California" (1975) confirmed that student contacts in the career resource center in a year could be expected to equal as many as four times the population of a school. In a high school with 2,500 students, that was 10,000 student contacts. Not bad for a refurbished classroom equipped with existing materials and limited staff.

In many cases the career resource center was operated by only one staff person, usually a counselor. Space was made available in the center, and part of the counseling and guidance operation was shifted to this new location, out of the prestigious administrative area. Most of the other professional staff didn't realize what was happening until the career resource center was in full swing. They began to take notice, however, when they visited the center and saw how many students were there.

Self-referred students took advantage of the centers before school, during lunch, and after school. At the same time the student load in the counseling and guidance suite stayed the same and, in some cases, even dropped. It was immediately apparent to everyone that career resource centers were attracting and serving more students than traditional counseling and guidance programs. Administrators couldn't fail to observe the heavy use of the centers by students. An elaborate accountability system to prove the effectiveness of the centers was unnecessary. Foot traffic was sufficient to validate the effectiveness of the career resource center and to pave the way for budgetary support of staff and materials for the center's operation.

Professional staff personnel, used to working with students on a one-to-one basis, experienced initial problems in trying to give individual help to students, especially when they all swarmed into the center at the same time. And once inside, as in a supermarket, many students who came in for one thing developed an appetite for another. In order to survive, the center director had to develop a system that would provide for the needs of those visiting the center and at the same time give the counselor time to counsel.

A student oriented information system was usually the first thing that sprang up in a center. Students were asking to see the counselor for information. It was the information they really wanted, however, not the counselor, and a well-trained secretary could perform this service as well as a counselor. What started out as an expedient method caught hold. The secretary was happy to be sought out by students as a source of information. Students were happy to get information more quickly than they had in the past. Because of lack of staff to help them individually, students had to help themselves. For many students it was the first time they had participated in the counseling and guidance process and they liked it. Teachers were happy because they could see the tremendous numbers of students being served, and they understood and approved of the process. The counselor was happy because the students were getting the information they wanted and the counselor was receiving credit for a job well done--and, better yet, the counselor had more time for counseling.

Differentiated staffing got a foothold in the pupil services program when the secretary started doing other than secretarial tasks. Slowly, without fanfare or formal announcement, another member was added to the student services team. The position became more and more necessary as traffic in the center increased and the skill and expertise of the "career aide" or otherwise-named paraprofessional became acknowledged.

The rationale for the employment of paraprofessionals was based on their ability to provide needed services to students, not on their training, educational background, or state certification. What escaped the attention of many was that what was being purchased was outcomes with students. In many cases there was no title to the position, but there was accountability.

Services in the career resource center usually spread from information to placement. Job placement has been and seems to be the No. 1 concern of students at all educational levels. A new center that wanted to attract students had to inaugurate a placement service. Most educational institutions had some type of work experience program operating somewhere on the campus, but usually not of the kind that could be provided through a career resource center. Another advantage was the integration and coordination of these services in the same location. The availability of information led to counseling, counseling to placement, and placement to more information and counseling for better placement. The use of one service increased the use of other services by students. The whole exceeded the sum of the parts.

Then the separate services began to be molded into a sequential program because of their proximity and interrelationship. Informal conversations among professionals who worked closely together resulted in service and program modifications that were beneficial to all concerned. The appraisal service (testing) led to increased use of group activities. The tests could be given in groups, and therefore why not the interpretation of the tests? If the information service and center space were organized correctly, students could even pursue their individual interests in the career resource center using the supermarket approach. The approach taken was, "Look for yourself, and if you can't find it, call for help!" To a lot of people's surprise, the sytem worked.

Another surprise occurred with the group interpretation of test instruments and surveys in the career resource center. The cycle was extended: appraisal to information to counseling to placement. Students began to use the results of appraisal instruments in information-seeking, decision-making processes, rather than just filing their scores. Follow-up became possible because of the physical facilities, media, and materials available. The center's ability to handle a classroom size group enabled the guidance staff to bring teachers to the center to observe the staff in operation, to see the center function, to note student reactions, and to see the possibilities of using the center for their own purposes.

Present State of Career Resource Centers

Career resource centers have spread rapidly throughout the United States since their introduction around 1970. Shortly thereafter in California some of the earliest writings began to appear. (Filmore, 1971; Jacobson, 1971, 1972a, 1972b, and 1972c). Instructional manuals were also developed by school systems and county and state departments of education throughout the nation in such states as California (Guido & Guyer, 1973; Ogilvie, 1974; Riverside County Regional Occupational Program, 1973), Illinois (Career Education Resource Laboratory, 1974), Indiana (Smith, 1975;

Snell, et al., 1976), Iowa (Brooks, 1973), Massachusetts (Leland, et al., 1974; Pitch, 1975; Tobin, et al., 1975), Michigan (Meerbach, 1975; Oegema, 1975), Minnesota (Boelink & Welch, 1973; Poppe & Schultz, 1973), New Hampshire (Gustafson, et al., 1975), New Jersey (Bornstein, 1975; Sullivan, 1975), and Pennsylvania (Cameron & Lutz, 1973; Dittennafer & Lewis, 1973; Lewis, 1975)--and in Canada (Larson, 1975; Wright, 1975).

Most of the literature available today on career resource centers consists of "how to" manuals on their establishment and operation. Scant attention is paid to the systematic study and evaluation of these centers. Jacobson (1974) and "A Study of Career Centers in the State of California " (1975) are two of the very few references that deal with these issues. It is also interesting to note that the major vehicle for formally transmitting information about career resource centers seems to be the "how to" manual, and informally just simple observation and emulation. There seems to be extremely limited use of other media, for only one set of audio-visual materials on career resource centers, a set of 35 mm filmstrips (Jacobson, 1974a, 1974b), seems ever to have been produced.

The career resource center that started as a career alternative in the early part of the movement has evolved in a very short time to a full student services center. In most cases the name hasn't changed but it is becoming a misnomer. The other student services specialists in secondary schools and community colleges, and in many cases in junior high schools, are now quartered together in a large facility that coordinates and integrates all student services. Recent additions to the center staff are psychologists, social workers, speech therapists, and specialists in placement, handicapped, financial aid, and health services. The career resource center has now become a full-fledged human resources center.

Impact of a Career Resource Center on the Total School or Agency

With the evolution of the career resource center, a gradual revolution has occurred in the provision of student services that has brought about major changes in the provision, quantity, quality, and type of student services offered. Issues that have been debated in university training programs for several decades have been challenged: The role of the counselor, should counselors be involved in discipline, should counselors be teachers first, is supervised practicum necessary before a counselor can work with students. Some long-standing philosophical arguments have become eclipsed when seen in the light of increased program effectiveness. Guidance program operators appear to be more pragmatic and less philosophical than their university counterparts. The following paragraphs describe some of the major changes that have occurred.

Program Needs vs. Student Needs

The existence of the career resource center depends on its continuing to satisfy student needs. An accurate indication of how well the center is meeting student needs is the amount of student traffic, because most students are self-referred. Unlike a closed office, it is immediately clear when a center is not being used. For years student needs have served as the basis for student services programs, but there have been no checks and balances. The program that did not meet student needs continued on just like the one that did. The student really controls the career resource center because of his or her self-referral capability. The ineffective professional cannot "hide out" in an open space center. The empty career center doesn't exist very long.

Counselor Responsibility vs. Student Responsibility

The supermarket characteristic of the center places responsibility on the student and removes it from the counselor. Facilities that permit domination by the professional are gone. Both the open space of the center and the necessity of participation in it encourage the transference of responsibility to the student. Many supposed "student-centered" professional staff have found it difficult to relinquish this responsibility to students, but have been won over slowly by watching the positive results that occur. The effectiveness of the career resource center presents a positive argument that is hard to combat.

Professional Staffing vs. Differentiated Staffing

The career resource center provides so many options and opportunities for participation by so many people that the concept of differentiated staffing has flourished. Paraprofessional staff members outnumber professional staff in a center, while in traditional one-to-one counseling facilities they are greatly outnumbered. Professionals are able to relinquish tasks that are more appropriate for others to do, to change their priorities from providing services to insuring planned-for program outcomes, and to experiment with variable staffing plans that accomplish program objectives in the most efficient manner. This shift has also caused professional staff members to assume managerial roles in addition to their service roles. The "team concept" of the student services team or pupil personnel services team has also emerged as additional staff have been added. What was a textbook notion has become an operational reality.

All of these changes have not been accomplished without difficulty. Professional staff have not always wanted to assume managerial responsibility, or to relinquish their independence and have to concern themselves with the affairs of others. More long-range and careful planning of program activities is also necessary when a great many staff members are to be involved. In effect, differentiated staffing in the career resource center has been the cause of much more systematic program planning.

The subtle and gradual development of the career resource center was able to bring about a dramatic shift in the staffing of student services programs because the shift occurred slowly. If the existing guidance staff in the late 60's had been asked to vote on the total operational system that was to be developed, the career resource center might have never gotten off the ground. The requests for changes came one at a time, and each change was minor. In many cases the professional person involved was not too interested because the new staff person didn't affect what the professional was doing or needed to do at that particular time. Many dissenters among the professional staff who did not welcome differentiated staffing tended to ignore it, thinking that it would be unsuccessful and simply go away. However, the results were not as expected and differentiated staffing increased.

Another unusual situation in the development of differentiated staffing involved the conditions under which new staff were added. Prior to the initiation of the career resource center, decisions for additional staff, program operation, and services were almost all made verbally by the professional staff. If the staff didn't believe the idea was needed or would not work, then the idea was dropped. Because a professional staff person was involved in practically all activities and services, the verbal "no" was final. Because the center was usually in a separate location and out of necessity employed differentiated staff, they were able to validate their effectiveness in actual performance. The dissenting professional staff could continue to express negative reactions, but the proof of the worth of the new staffing strategy was evident. The new staff almost automatically became members of the career resource center operation and the student services team. Verbal arguments lost out to demonstrated examples of effectiveness, first with staffing and later in many more areas.

People-Domination vs. Employment of People Plus Media and Materials

The openness of the career resource center provided a place for the display and use of a wide range of media and materials that were designed to do many of the same tasks that were being done by staff. The large number of student users (50 to 75 per day per center), plus the lack of enough staff to serve them individually, forced career resource center operators to experiment with alternative methods of accomplishing information dissemination, appraisal, and placement. The results were positive. Students were enthusiastic about the possibilities for involvement. The economics of media and materials to replace personnel and improve program efficiency was apparent--so the use of media and materials flourished.

Many problems arose, however. Media and materials were purchased without thought as to how they could fit into the existing system. In many cases there *was* no system. Thus, software was purchased for which there was no hardware, and hardware was purchased for which there was very little available software. Some centers became overstocked media and material centers without any access systems. The center filled with resources could be likened to a library without a card catalog.

Part of this problem was caused by purchasing practices. There was no established budget, so no plans were made for spending money. At the end of the year there were usually some funds available in the general budget that could be assigned to the center if the principal was convinced that it was necessary. These windfall monies usually had to be spent in a hurry, with very little consideration given to a rational purchasing process, and were too often spent carelessly.

Most center operators learned from experience in the first rush of windfall buying as it became painfully apparent that the funds had not been spent wisely. In an effort to avoid repeating the same mistake, they started to prepare purchase orders for materials on the assumption that money might be available some time in the future--not just lists of materials, but complete purchase orders. When the windfall money came from whatever source, their paperwork was prepared in priority order. This procedure allowed them to buy complete sets of materials--the hardware first, and then gradually, parts of the software--until the system was complete. Planning for the purchase of media and materials quickly became an established practice.

This planning emphasis also carried over into other aspects of the student services programs. The questions applied to the media and materials had to be applied to other components as well. For example, what were the new media and materials going to replace or augment? Thus, the space in the center and the necessity for careful planning for purchase and use of media and materials had an impact on planning throughout the total student services program.

Intermittent vs. Continuing Services to Students

Once opened, a career resource center was available for student use all day every day of the school year. The use of media and materials, paraprofessional staff, student and parent volunteers, and individual student help allowed all of the services in the center except individual counseling to be expanded on a continuing basis. Lack of counselor time was no longer a limiting factor. The open space or supermarket aspect of the center provided an atmosphere in which students could browse fully. Since they did not have to ask for a specific bit of information or obligate the time of a staff person, students began to visit the career resource center more frequently in much the same way that people shop. The facilities and the atmosphere promoted developmental use of the center, and it became known as a service that all students used--not as a crisis service to be utilized by a small minority of the student body. The browsing aspect of the center plus the individual nature of its resources facilitated and enhanced the readiness of students to seek and utilize additional services. One counselor commented, "I now see more students, but for shorter periods of time. They seem to have done their homework and only come to me to confirm information they have already gathered, or to discuss the personal application of information as it affects their decision making."

One-to-One Functioning with a Counselor vs. Group Services with Individual Options

The space available in the career resource center suggested the possibility of working with groups of students. Many of the services provided in the regular student services program lent themselves to group processes. Nothing would be lost by including more than one student in the activity. Occupational and educational information could be and was presented to groups of students. Tests were explained in groups. Many of the students in the groups were satisfied and did not desire any further contact with the student services program. Those who had special concerns or wanted additional information could seek out the counselor individually for more personal attention. Time for individual help was available because of the economy of seeing the majority of students in groups. Individual services were provided more judiciously to the students who needed them rather than a blanket attempt to provide expensive individual services to everyone. The group-oriented activities also stimulated a steady stream of self-referred students who thus became interested in more individual contact with a counselor. At the end of the school year the counselor and the student services program recorded a tremendous increase in student staff contact as compared with the one-to-one counseling program.

College Orientation vs. College Plus Vocational Orientation

The organization of the career resource center was tailored to the changing needs of the student. The very name of the career resource center implied a change in program emphasis from college to careers. However, most centers, although called career resource centers, allocated space, media, and materials to permit students to pursue both areas at once or to shift back and forth from one to the other. Students were not required to make a choice and could examine all available materials without pressure. Making all kinds of materials available to students for their individual use also decreased possible professional staff bias in what was offered to students. Students were free to establish and maintain the program emphasis, and student use demanded that the center be responsive. The power of determining what the emphasis in the center would be was firmly in the hands of the students, and they wanted both areas.

Long-Range vs. Present and Future Orientation

The responsiveness of the career resource center to student needs caused a shift from long-range services to those of a more immediate nature. Student interest in and concern with part-time and full-time employment took precedence over college planning for an eventual job six or seven years in the future. The ability of students to influence the services being offered had a marked effect on priority setting. The present needs of students for jobs, for course planning for immediate results, and for accurate, timely information on which to base decisions changed what the staff did, altered staffing patterns, and instilled a measure of accountability into the services provided. It was one thing to counsel a student for a decision or an event that was to occur some years later. It was quite another to offer assistance to students who wanted immediate results, and who would keep coming back again and again if the results they wanted did not occur. The satisfaction of immediate student needs had an unanticipated side benefit--students gained in sophistication and in their capacity to make long-range decisions. The satisfaction of their short-range needs attracted larger numbers of career resource center users. Placement, occupational, and educational information services attracted students to the center where they became aware of and used appraisal and counseling services.

Staff Responsibility vs. Staff and Community Responsibility

It is difficult to involve others in the guidance process in a small office that has room only for a counselor and perhaps two or three students. The career resource center changed all that by providing space for large groups of students, guidance personnel of all types, community members, and teaching faculty. When others become involved and are able to see what is being done in the guidance program, they are usually willing to pitch in and help make the program a success. However, without the opportunity to see a guidance program in action, or to experience what is going on, most people are at best ambivalent, or at worst hostile to, the guidance program. Include them in the action in the guidance program and they will not only change their opinion of it, they will become program boosters. This can be done by informing others about what the guidance program wishes to accomplish in the career resource center, requesting the assistance of others in operating the guidance program as speakers or resource persons, and using the varied talents of as many people as possible. Most people yearn to be involved in a positive way in guiding youth. A good career resource center operator knows how to identify and encourage people who have something to share with students to become one of the "resources" in the career resource center. The center now provides the place to use these heretofore unused resource persons.

Guidance as a Low Budget Priority vs. Guidance as a High Budget Priority

Prior to the operation of the career resource centers many guidance programs had a low budget priority. In fact, some didn't have any budget priority at all because they had no budget. The major expense of hiring staff was about all that was budgeted for guidance; but after that, all of the operating expenses for the student services program were allocated through the graciousness of the principal or of some other administrator. The move to the career resource center required a large list of items needed immediately for sustained service and operation: media and materials, hardware, decoration, supplies, commercial guidance materials of all types, and tests. With the demand for funds, however, came the validation of need. Administrators saw clearly the sustained use of the career resource center by increasing numbers of students. Initially, funds were allocated sparingly out of contingency accounts, and only slowly became regular budget line items. The budgets were also built backwards. Rather than planning for and requesting funds ahead of time, needs arose and funds were "found" in other budget categories. This series of maneuvers continued until it became clear to most administrators that the career resource center was a permanent part of the student services program and deserved to be a regular line item in the budget.

Independent Functioning by Staff Members vs. Team Functioning

The individuality of the small counseling office discouraged team functioning of student services staff members. Since there was no space in their offices for the involvement of others, most student services staff operated alone. The very idea of working together hardly ever occurred. The quality, type, and quantity of services provided were rarely ever viewed or critiqued by others. The career resource center changed all that. It was easy to see what was being provided by other staff members when the barriers between individual offices were removed. What couldn't be observed in an individual office was readily apparent in a large center, and it was easy to see that services were being duplicated and were overlapping. Also, the involvement of paraprofessionals in many services forced the development of a management plan.

Another phenomenon occurred that fostered a team approach for the student services staff: the development of the "duty counselor." With a large student load and no coordination, each counselor in the past had to be continuously available to students. The introduction of the "duty counselor" meant that there was always a counselor available for emergencies, which freed the rest of the counselors to pursue other guidance activities.

Provision of Unrelated Services vs. Development of a Program of Services

The openness of the career resource center made extremely visible what services were being offered to students. The flow of the services and the gaps in the services were obvious to everyone, and this made program planning a natural outcome. What was not stimulated by staff planning was brought about by student demands. The career resource center operator had to anticipate and plan ahead. It was impossible to serve all students at once and noone wanted to turn students away. Program planning was the easiest, most effective way to handle the situation. Instead of being a theoretical, impractical exercise, program planning became a primary survival skill for the career resource center staff, as well as a tremendous benefit to students.

The Career Resource Center as an Imperative for Guidance

The following statements summarize the reasons why a career resource center is an imperative for guidance and a facility that should be initiated in any educational setting:

1. The facility builds upon and flourishes from student needs.
2. Student responsibility and participation in the guidance process are provided for and encouraged in a career resource center.

3. The center allows for differentiated staffing in delivering services to students.

4. More services can be provided to students in groups in a career resource center. The addition of a center can increase the amount of student contact with the student services program as much as four or five times.

5. Facilities affect the quantity, quality, and frequency of student services provided. It takes more space to offer increased services to students. This space is best organized and utilized in a career resource center.

6. Most student needs are of a short range nature. The career resource center provides an operational delivery system to meet the short range needs of students, while providing for long range student needs as they present themselves.

7. The career resource center provides the opportunity for total staff and community participation in the guidance process. Participation provides understanding of and support for the student services program.

8. Guidance as a low priority budget item achieves a higher priority as a career resource center becomes operational and provides administrators and others with validation of need data based on student use.

9. The center provides a place and the conditions for

team functioning, team building, and the elimination of overlap in staff functioning.

10. A program of services vs. a potpourri of unrelated services will result because the operation of a career resource center exposes all services being provided to full view of students, staff, and others.

Recommendations for Centers

The statewide study of career centers in California directed by the author (1975) yielded some recommendations for current and future career resource center operators based on a review of hundreds of operational centers. The complete recommendations are in the report of the study, and only the highlights are mentioned here.

Staff

A career resource center needs a coordinator to be in charge of obtaining resources and staff as necessary to operate the center. A committee cannot and will not operate a center very well. One person must be designated to function in this role. This person has usually been a counselor; however, if a counselor did not assume the responsibility, others have done so.

Volunteers are a necessary part of career resource center operations, but it takes paid staff to organize and supervise their performance. The entire student services staff should be required to participate in the center's operation with defined responsibilities. This keeps the operation from being a one-person show, provides balance in the program provided, and utilizes the strengths of individual staff members. Paraprofessionals cannot run the career resource center alone; they don't have "clout" enough in a school system to get things done. Also, paraprofessionals should not be expected to assume the responsibilities of professionals unless they are paid and treated like professionals. If the paraprofessionals are doing all of the work, consider eliminating the professionals!

One last recommendation: Do not increase staff until existing or planned-for programs and activities will use that new person's skills to capacity. Hiring staff and then trying to figure out what they will do is a very common error.

Printed and Audio-Visual Sources of Information

Printed materials continue to be the career resource center's basic information resources. Computers and audio visual materials exist, but they are secondary, more expensive, and used less than printed materials. Purchase equipment and software only when you have a planned program in which they will be used. It is more often necessary to develop ways to promote student use of existing materials than to acquire new materials. Orientation programs are necessary for students in each grade level each year. Those materials and services that are appropriate to students at their level must be highlighted and explained because they are new to students. If students know what is in the center and how to use it, they will!

Career Center Programs and Activities

Provide time for a follow-up on all activities, for that is what pays off for the student. For example, the administration and scoring of interest surveys is of no value to students unless there is time for follow-up in helping them to understand and use the scores. We found in our survey (A Study of Career Centers in the State of California, 1975) that the average student in California had only spent five minutes in follow-up of interest surveys: an activity that should last at least two hours. We also found that the one variable that determined a successful or marginal career resource center operation was the development of a planned program. Large, expensive facilities with professional staffs were totally ineffective unless there was a planned program of activities and services. More modest, less well-staffed centers were effective if management was stressed. Good management allowed all kinds of personnel to function in the operation of the center. The lack of management, i.e., no planned program, resulted in disorganized services, disinterested students, discouraged staff, and the decline of the center.

Public Relations

Any service will only be supported if people understand it and use it. The faculty in a school usually have some influence in budget determination. Don't forget this in your public relations program. Spend as much time getting *faculty* to support the center as you spend getting *students* to use it. Incorporate the satisfaction of faculty needs into the center operation by contacting department chairpersons, by providing curriculum resources and personal resources to teachers. Start with one teacher in each department and work to build support. If you are successful, that teacher will sell others on your program. Work with those who are cooperative and let them be examples to others. Don't promise to be all things to all people. Be realistic--it adds to your credibility and your acceptance by the faculty. You must be able to tell a faculty member in one sentence how the career resource center will help his or her program: more student enrollment, increased student interest, more student motivation. If you can't say what the center can do, how can you expect a teacher to support it?

Effectiveness of Career Resource Centers for Students

Structure the career resource center program so that students are brought into the center frequently, not just once or twice. Student gains from the center increase proportionately to the number of times they use it. Information and knowledge are useless unless they are applied, and it takes time to apply them to career planning and decision-making. Too many centers rush from one surface activity to another without giving students a depth experience through multiple contacts with the center.

Finance

Get the funds you need to start a career center from the existing budget by re-allocating people and materials. Don't ask for a penny of new money until you can show that you need it. In this way everyone can afford to start a career resource center. Look to your own school and district for funds. In the long run, it beats the rat race for grant-getting and forces you to establish your priorities from local needs, the satisfaction of which will result in continuing funding support.

Evaluation

Evaluate and find out what changes need to be made in your career resource center, and make those changes quickly and openly. Tell people what changes are being made and why. This will provide you with your greatest form of support. You will eliminate minor problems before they develop into major ones. You will also know how your center is functioning and will be in a better position to be an effective manager. The evaluation system used (questionnaires, student counts, surveys, interviews) is not as important as the fact that evaluation was done.

Recommendations for Specific Groups

State Directors of Guidance

1. If there is not a current directory of career resource centers in your state, create one that includes data about location, staff, facility, materials, budget, and evaluation.

2. If your state has no outstanding operational career resource centers, support the start-up of a few examples.

3. Support and encourage research on career resource centers to develop effective models and programs in your state.

4. Show local program operators how to use the career resource center as a public relations tool to advertise guidance program effectiveness.

5. Provide leadership in showing guidance workers on all levels how to use the center as a laboratory for staff development training of counselors, paraprofessionals, administrators, and others.

6. Use local, state, and Federal funds as "seed money" to initiate new career resource centers or to stimulate more effective operation and innovation within existing centers in your state.

7. Use Federal, state, and local funding to support staff development workshops on the operation of effective career resource centers.

Counselor Educators

1. Review guidance programs in your geographical area to determine whether or not career resource centers exist. If they exist, where are they? How many are there? How useful are they?

2. Review the curriculum in the counselor education program. Is the career resource center included in it? If not, why not? Are you teaching what is happening now, or is your course work based on the past?

3. Consider the merits of the career resource center in a field location as a training laboratory for preservice and inservice training of student services workers of all types--not just counselors.

4. Consider the capability of the counselor education staff and students to research and critique existing career resource centers, prepare evaluative reports, and make recommendations to local school counselors and administrators.

5. Present papers and convention programs on how to operate effective career resource centers.

6. Develop a model career resource center as part of the counselor education program. Students emulate what they know through experience. If they have been involved in an effective program in their training, they will feel more competent to develop similar programs.

Directors of Guidance

1. Determine whether there are any operational career resource centers in your district.

2. If there are no centers, take the leadership in stimulating the development and operation of career resource centers in district schools with provision of budget, staff, and facilities.

3. Evaluate the career resource center as an effective delivery system; and if it is effective, tell your story to local decision-makers, parents, administrators, governing board, community, others.

4. Look for the possibility of introducing management of guidance programs in your district through the planning and operation of career resource centers.

5. Consider the merits of the career resource center, or total services center, as the focal point from which all pupil personnel services specialists can operate in a team effort. Do you have an operational pupil personnel services team in your district? If you don't have a team, but you have team members, consider the career resource center as the field on which the team can play.

6. Use the career resource center as a laboratory for your staff development program, in which skills are learned that can be implemented immediately by paraprofessionals, students, volunteers, counselors, teachers, administrators, and others.

7. Use the career resource center as a political strategy to involve more personnel in the pupil personnel services program. The more participation you have, the more support you will gain.

Counselors

1. Consider the career resource center as a delivery system that you can utilize to provide more services to students.

2. Consider the career resource center as a vehicle to involve others in your guidance program: teachers, paraprofessionals, psychologists, social workers, nurses, speech therapists.

3. Look for ways that the career resource center can be used as an effective public relations vehicle.

4. Investigate and capitalize on the possibilities that the career resource center allows for you to do specialized counseling while other staff members provide other guidance services.

Future of Career Resource Centers

At the present time career resource centers are operating in all but two of the fifty states, and in seven foreign countries. The best way to evaluate these centers for possible use in your school system is to see them in action. Call the pupil services or vocational education division in your district, county, or state department of education for locations. If there are no career resource centers in your geographical area, you can obtain the equivalent of a personal visit by obtaining copies of career center filmstrips (Jacobson 1974b, 1974c). The most current complete reference on how to develop a career resource center has been prepared by Axelrod (Axelrod, et al., 1977). A set of materials on how to train career resource center technicians in facility maintenance has been created by Johnson (1976).

The future of career resource centers has to be bright. This delivery system provides for accountability, flexibility, versatility, economy, and simplicity. In those locations where they have been established, career resource centers have evolved into the central form of delivery system of student services. One-to-one counseling has diminished as the full-service career resource center, now more appropriately called the human resources center, has provided a more responsive and effective alternative. Local funding and local control have kept the center operational and responsive to changing needs. This new supermarket system of student services has effectively replaced the old general store system.

The rapid increase in the establishment of career resource centers in the last eight years has had and will continue to have a profound effect on all of us who are associated with guidance and counseling programs. To assume otherwise is to ignore an imperative for guidance that has a possibility of achieving your wildest expectations for guidance program acceptance, effectiveness, and growth, whether you are a counselor, a guidance director, a counselor educator, or a state supervisor of guidance. If there isn't one already, there is going to be a career resource center in your future.

Why not plan to use this guidance facility to enhance your role, and to improve and increase the quality and quantity of guidance services you can provide for students.

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12 counselors on the bubble

Garry R. Walz and Libby Benjamin

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COUNSELORS ON THE BUBBLE

Garry R. Walz and Libby Benjamin

The authors assert that counselors must continually renew their skills if they are to be a force in the educational system, and they suggest a variety of ways for doing so. Beginning with an analysis of the need for renewal, they offer five steps by which counselors can upgrade their skills on an individual basis. They then briefly outline three renewal programs developed by various professional groups, and follow with eight guidelines to help those who are interested in establishing a counselor renewal program in their own setting, with a model that illustrates how it can be done using available resources. Some of the barriers to renewal that may need to be overcome, both personal and systemic, are presented; and the chapter concludes with a list of imperatives for counselor renewal programs, and recommendations for the kinds of activities various guidance groups should perform to respond to those imperatives.

When 50 racing cars are competing for 25 positions in several time trials, the car which tentatively commands the 25th position is "on the bubble," i.e., liable to be bumped from the race at any moment as new qualifying times are posted. An apt analogy to where counselors are, we think. If counselors are to stay in the race, to maintain and enhance their impact in the educational process, they need to streamline their present functioning and acquire new power trains that will improve their track record.

The Need for Counselor Renewal

Renewal has two components: the updating of one's existing knowledge and skills, and the acquisition of new ideas and competencies. Variously called "staff development," "professional development," and "inservice training," we see the term "renewal" as more than the educational experiences provided by schools or training institutions; renewal, to us, incorporates the concept of self-renewal, where counselors take responsibility for their own new-growth experiences, pursue self-instructional modes of learning of their own volition, and feel strong motivation, excitement, and joy in the process.

The great current need for professional renewal arises from several sources. One is the changes that have occurred in the public's perception of the need for and support of counselors. The late 50's and early 60's were times when counselors were in great demand, NDEA-sponsored training programs flourished, universities hastily created patterns of required courses for professional degrees, and states developed a variety of certification standards. Jobs were plentiful, and faculty who "liked kids" were pressed into service as either part-time or full-time counselors. Adding counselors to the school staff was seen as a way of responding to the prevailing emphasis on education tailored to individual needs and concerns. During the present decade the situation has changed drastically. Jobs are scarce and budgets are tight. Thus, movement is far more limited and the stability of counseling staffs prohibits the infusion of new personnel with new ideas and new energies. Either counselors counsel excellently, which means continual updating and upgrading of skills, or they stand in danger of losing their jobs.

The need for professional renewal stems also from the current emphasis on accountability--not just performance-accountability but cost-accountability as well. Having to prove that they make a difference is causing counselors to reach out for new competencies in such areas as program development and evaluation. The realization that paraprofessionals or present teaching faculty can fulfill some aspects of the counselor's role is also raising questions that have profound implications for counselors' involvement in renewal experiences.

Another force for professional renewal is the complexity of the counselor's role. Few other educational personnel have such unusually complicated responsibilities; counselors' functions are as varied as the institutions in which they work. Increasingly, counselors are being called upon to do far more than they have been trained to do, to demonstrate skills in leadership, management, consultation, and program design, and to exhibit expertise in the political arena.

As morals and mores change, and as sociological events impact on schools, so must institutions change if they are to be responsive to student needs. Because changes in curricular content and emphasis traditionally lag behind current need, counselors are often in a position to make the first relevant response to existing pressures. To be able to do so means that counselors are sensitive to the beginnings of discontent, have the motivation to search out ways of responding, and equip themselves with the requisite skills to deal with the issues--in short, they engage in the process of self-renewal.

Steps to Self-Renewal

To be effective, self-renewal requires more than participating in inservice training experiences, attending various sessions at conventions, or keeping up with the journals. While all of these can be helpful, they are likely to have little impact unless they possess sequence and cohesion, and emerge from a plan. Self-renewal is a planned process comprised of at least the following components:

1. A sensing mechanism to determine the most appropriate target for renewal efforts. This can be accomplished through a needs/wants assessment or a survey of various pupulations; through informal interviewing; or by monitoring emerging trends through the media, national data bases, current literature, and writings of known professional innovators.

2. A clear, written definition of the target goal and specific objectives to be accomplished. Often a group of counselors will come to consensus on a target for renewal, and there is verbal agreement and even excitement about pursuing the goal. Because expectations may differ, however, the outcome may bring dissatisfaciton to some--a situation that can be avoided if everyone knows clearly at the outset what the precise objectives are.

3. Selection of the renewal mode that best fits the cognitive style of the learner. Some counselors will choose a small-group format in which

they can join with their peers in learning, others will select a one-to-one teaching/learning mode, while still others may prefer to go it alone. Counselors should confer on what the delivery system will be and make every effort to adapt it to individual learning styles.

4. Adaptation of new skills to personal style. New skills are like new shoes--they are not comfortable until they become stretched and molded to fit one's personal contours--and if they continue to pinch or rub, they will be discarded. Counselors need to experiment with new programs or approaches, find a basic compatibility or fit, and then reach out to expand and renew their existing repertoire of behaviors, i.e., take the risk of going beyond the comfortable and the known to the rich reward of true professional growth.

5. An evaluation component that reveals to counselors how well they have achieved their objectives. Not only is this satisfying to the renewal seekers, it is one more step along the road to accountability. The real measure of success will be found in the answers to the questions, "How are students (how am I) different because of my renewal efforts?" "What can students (I) do now that they (I) couldn't do before?" "Is this a constructive difference?"

We are not suggesting that renewal involves only skills--knowledge and attitudes are just as important. These three elements of counselor functioning are highly interrelated and must be dealt with as an integrated whole. Without new knowledge, counselors are unaware of current trends and developments and resources available for responding to them, and their attitudes become fixated. Without new skills, counselors are unable to take advantage of new approaches or put into practice the knowledge they have acquired. And without attitudes of openness, risk-taking, willingness to experiment, comfort with failure, and pursuit of challenge and change, counselors will shun the chance to acquire new knowledge and skills.

Programs of Professional Renewal

Programs for professional development and renewal have grown in focus and depth as well as in number. It used to be that school districts required counselors (and other professional staff) to earn a specified number of credits periodically in order to retain their positions and advance on the salary schedule. Course content in general was by individual choice, although broad areas of study were sometimes stipulated; but most often, concern centered on what was not allowable rather than on what should be part of the course refreshment plan.

In many communities this has changed. Inservice training has become a byword and a "given," a built-in part of the school budget. In addition, local, state, and national professional groups, counselor-oriented organizations, colleges and universities, and state guidance officials are taking more responsibility for assessing the needs of students and the competencies of professional personnel, and providing training experiences that will enable staff to gain the knowledge and skills required to keep pace with the changing needs of their student clientele. In many locales, counselors are given release time to participate in training experiences conducted by a paid professional consultant. Or, they are allowed to attend conferences or special workshops. Or, and this happens less frequently, they themselves obtain helpful resources, band together, and engage in self-learning sessions.

The following program descriptions are a few examples of some ongoing professional renewal efforts by various groups.

Illinois Guidance and Personnel Association

The Professional Development Program Committee of IGPA, through the efforts of six Task Forces, produced a Model Counselor Skills Training Program with an outline of supportive activities to make it operational. This model program proposed eight areas of competency with objectives, and criteria by which counselors could judge their competence in each objective: (1) the counselor as a person, (2) counseling services, (3) career development, (4) human appraisal, (5) consultation, (6) coordination, (7) research and evaluation, and (8) referral. Later, a review of the program led to the identification of a ninth area of competency which was added to the model: (9) counselor as change agent.

Objectives for each of the nine areas were separated into three levels:

Level I - Persons with a Master's degree
Level II - Persons with at least two years of postdegree counseling experience

Level III - Persons who desired professional recognition as counselor educators or supervisors

A Review Board was trained to assess counselor competencies at the three levels. Currently, efforts are underway to involve more members of IGPA in the programs and to award continuing education units to those who complete the programs successfully.

St. Louis (MO) Personnel and Guidance Association

St. Louis PGA, in cooperation with Webster College Community Education Program, developed a counselor renewal project with the following goals:

1. To offer skill-building courses not found in traditional counselor education programs
2. To offer courses designed to develop specific skills
3. To offer workshops for special interest groups
4. To help counselors develop skills in new areas of interest

Starting in 1972, a number of courses of varying lengths, carrying varying hours of credit, and occurring at varying times were offered, of which only one, "The Counselor as a Change Agent," succeeded in drawing enough registrants. Since that small beginning, however, all courses proposed have prospered, enrollments are large, evaluations are positive, and other professional staff as well as counselors are enjoying the benefits from taking the courses.

A very interesting fact emerged from a research study of this program: Whereas in a preliminary needs assessment counselors indicated their areas of greatest need for training, and courses were designed and offered accordingly, in actuality they signed up for courses in areas *other* than those they themselves had specified as being of high priority. The conclusion was drawn that people often take courses for reasons other than to satisfy a specific need.

Several helpful suggestions came out of the experiences of those who developed this renewal project, and they are summarized here for the benefit of those who would attempt to replicate the efforts of the St. Louis PGA.

1. Offer courses of not more than 12 contact hours, carrying one hour of credit, on a Friday evening or Saturday.
2. Offer courses in conjunction with conventions or other workshops.
3. Offer different courses each semester.
4. Choose content that is allied with what counselors are presently doing.
5. Use format of short lectures, demonstrations, participatory experience, and discussion. Include handouts.
6. Advertise in advance.

ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse

The CAPS Clearinghouse at The University of Michigan is the recipient of hundreds of requests for information on and assistance in a wide varie[illegible] human services areas. As a special project in 1977, CAPS developed the prototype of a self-help renewal system targeted to areas frequently identified as being of high priority, and asked several knowledgeable professionals to examine it, use it, and share their judgment of its worth. Based on very positive feedback, CAPS then combined forces with the American School Counselor Association to conduct an extensive needs assessment of the ASCA membership, out of which were identified over 30 areas of major interest to counselors. At the present time the Counselor Renewal System (CRS), as it is called, is in the process of completion and will be available for dissemination by late 1978.

The CRS is designed to be used in workshops or small groups, or by individual counselors, and requires a microfiche reader. It contains the following items:

1. A self-assessment inventory
2. Text on each of 30+ areas of renewal
3. An annotated bibliography of resources for each renewal area
4. Microfiche from the ERIC system for each renewal area

The format is looseleaf, which allows for updating and renewal of the System.

The first step is for the user to complete the self-assessment inventory that helps him/her identify areas of desired self-renewal and place them in priority order. The user then turns to an appropriate section, reads the text that describes resources available for that topic, and selects those he/she wishes to pursue. All ERIC resources are on microfiche, and the fiche are included as an integral part of the System. Thus, the CRS becomes a one-stop resource that at any given time can meet the unique needs of large numbers of users and, with the capacity for updating of microfiche and inserting of new resources for as-yet-unidentified areas of need, can respond to changing areas of emphasis as well.

Guidelines for Establishing A Counselor Renewal Program

Judicious mixing of structure and flexibility is critical to the success of a renewal program. Programs without structure may cause an individual to experience seemingly disparate activities which will have little impact and provide only minimal contributions to long-lasting learning. Renewal programs which become too highly organized deny the individual opportunity to experiment with different topics and to focus on areas that arise out of new-found interests or needs. A good balance between these two elements is essential.

We propose here a series of basic guidelines which we hope will be useful to individuals who wish to develop balanced and systematic counselor renewal programs. Rather than being definitive and immediately adoptable, the principles are intended to stimulate the reader to further thinking and planning.

1. An assessment of individual needs and interests

A renewal program should be targeted clearly to the needs and interests of each individual participant in the program. The ultimate utility of the experience will be determined by how well it responds to individual needs. While informal methods such as having each individual state his/her preferences are acceptable, a more desirable approach is to use a needs assessment device to assess systematically individual needs and interests and to assist each individual to prioritize them. The systematic approach has the added advantage of suggesting a wide range of possible topics for study, thus alerting respondents to areas of which they might have been unaware. The systematic approach also helps to determine the preferences of a group of individuals for various areas of renewal. These group data can be useful in planning and organizing the renewal activities.

2. Individualized counselor renewal activities

Many attractive choices face a counselor wishing to pursue renewal. Like a dazzled youngster before a candy counter, a counselor may make a choice by the attraction of the wrapper rather than by the quality of the contents. Renewal "cafeteria style," selection by how attractive something seems, may lead to temporary satisfaction but is unlikely to provide balanced professional development. Each counselor should be assisted to create a self-renewal plan which stems from specified goals and objectives and outlines clearly the steps to achieving them. The self-renewal plan then provides the steering mechanism for the counselor's renewal efforts. Having a plan is a way of insuring that scenic meanderings are minimized in favor of a carefully directed course that charts the most effective route to reaching each specific goal. Important goals and needs should not be left to chance. A goal-directed counselor renewal plan need not be pedantic and dull. Dreams, strivings, desired skills, "I would like...," and "I wish I could..." are the stuff of which good renewal plans are made. The plan should provide a pragmatic way of enabling counselors to realize their potentialities, to make their dreams happen.

In discussions with a renewal program coordinator, a counselor should establish a 2- to 3-year renewal plan and review it each year to assess progress toward the goals as well as the continuing relevance of the plan. It's not how much training a counselor receives, but how the training affects responses to client needs that is important.

3. Provision of release time

Encouragement for counselors to continue their education has long characterized many school systems. Frequently, school systems have used salary increments as an inducement for continued graduate coursework. Many state certification plans also include the stipulation that counselors earn a specified number of graduate credits over a stated time period. Under such approaches, counselors typically have been able to acquire additional training through evening and summer school classes. Such experiences have undoubtedly contributed to the heightened skill levels of counselors nationwide.

Counselor renewal programs which are more sharply focused on the acquisition of specific skills often require that the counselor be able to devote time to intensive learning sessions during normal working hours. Some programs specifically require that counselors use their work activities as a vehicle for implementing and practicing new skills. To benefit from such intensive learning sessions and/or to be able to give emphasis to applying new learnings to present work activities, counselors must be given release time. The familiar administrative admonition that counselors have all the time they need for retraining "after five and on weekends" hardly suffices to meet the contemporary counselor's needs. And counselors are not likely to perceive much administrative support behind a program that places most of the burden for continuing professional development upon themselves.

Under today's conditions of the greater continuity of counseling staffs and the progressive aging of staff members, new skills and abilities must be specifically taught to counselors. Since counselors are now likely to be with a system for a fairly long period of time, schools have greater incentive for providing programs to upgrade and renew counseling skills than they would if counselors occupied their school positions only temporarily. Increasingly, the skills of school counseling staffs will depend not upon a selection process but upon the effectiveness of the school's professional development and renewal program.

4. Bite-sized learning portions

Mention counselor renewal programs and many people have visions overloaded with "E"--Extended, Extensive, and Exhaustive. "Big and complex is better!" "Make them sweat!" These are attitudes some trainers have about what constitutes a good staff development program. Training specialists with a perverse side to their nature may take satisfaction in offering "substantially sound" programs that demand extended time allocations, require extensive homework, and probe exhaustively into each topic. Like overzealous dentists, they bore in and leave in their trail thoroughly bored participants. The natural appetite approach is sounder, with bite-sized morsels of learning that meet a counselor's need for a specific morsel of learning. Some trainers stuff counselors with a meal when what they want is a bite. With a good menu to choose from, a counselor can make a very nutritious meal out of many different bites. Bite-sized learning experiences that respond to explicit counselor needs and can be chewed and digested before the appetite is gone will keep the counselor coming back for more.

5. Individually-paced learning

Ask a group of learners what they want most in their learning and many will say, "To be able to progress at my own pace." Keeping the class together is a sure way to frustrate some learners a lot and many learners a little. A key provision in a counselor renewal program is to put participants in control of the throttle--to let them set the pace to suit themselves. Allowing learners to determine how far and how fast they will learn is essential to maximizing their efficiency and their motivation to continue. Individualizing the learning pace is one of the simplest things we can do to help individuals feel that they are participating in "my kind of learning."

6. Rewards for successful achievement

Counselor renewal programs should be focused on achievements. What the achievements are and what their worth is should be well-known. And those who successfully achieve should be rewarded. Certificates, rosters, public listings, or special classifications are just some of the ways to acknowledge a counselor's attainments. While much of the satisfaction from renewal efforts will be intrinsic to the counselor, concrete, visible rewards are also important as they serve to reinforce motivation and inner feelings of accomplishment. They also serve to communicate the high priority that a system attaches to renewal and the benefits that renewal can bring to the counselor.

7. Emphasis on competency-based outcomes

Counselor renewal programs can emphasize process or outcomes--what counselors experience in the training or what they can do after the training. We are partial to outcomes. We believe each learning activity should indicate clearly, in advance, what the counselor will be able to do as a result of completing the training. This approach provides the best possible basis for individuals to choose which learning activities to pursue. It enables learners to judge the "correctness of fit" between what a particular training experience offers and what they need and want.

Particularly suited to an outcome-oriented learning program are competency-based training modules. Modules of this design possess clearly specified objectives and criterion measures by which individuals are able to judge the extent of their learning upon completion of the training.

Individual pacing and bite-sized learning morsels are also an integral part of such modules. And by judicious selection of topics, learners can create their own book. They can customize a renewal program which speaks to their personal, esoteric learning needs and interests. When counselors are able to weave a number of self-selected modules into their own customized pattern and can cover them at a pace which is personally satisfying, they have truly created their own self-renewal program.

8. Reviewing and renewing the renewal

Yesterday's innovation can readily become today's drag. Sometimes we can become attached to a specific innovation and deny the need for renewing it. All counselor renewal programs should contain a reviewing and renewing component which provides for continuous assessment and review of the efficacy of the different learning activities and encourages the addition of new approaches and methods. We should never change just for the sake of changing. But we should never deny change when it is needed. The hallmark of a quality counselor renewal program is that the renewing process is continuous, and that it is applied not only to the program itself but also to the people who go through it.

An Illustrative Model

The following mini-model illustrates how one school system created and implemented its own counselor renewal program. The example is intended to show how a local school system can initiate a counselor renewal program using currently available resources.

The counselors at Lakeview High School had long felt the need for a renewal program. The staff had stabilized over a period of time, and they found themselves doing the same things they had been doing for years. The nearest college was 75 miles away, and few counselors in the system availed themselves of the opportunity to attend classes there. Many of the counselors applied for release time and money to attend workshops given at the college, but funds for such activities were very limited.

One counselor suggested that the guidance department build a renewal program around the Counselor Renewal System developed by ERIC/CAPS and ASCA. In a presentation to the administration, a group of counselors outlined the main features of the System--individual profiling of needs, self-pacing, individualized learning, and use of low cost microfiche. The administration was pleasantly surprised at the low cost of the CRS and liked its self-contained feature which precluded the need for expensive outside consultants and additional resources.

Together, the administration and the guidance department developed a plan whereby any counselor in the system could apply to a Counselor Renewal Committee for permission to begin a renewal program. A simple form asked applicants to specify their renewal objectives and plans, and to indicate how their participation in the program would benefit themselves, as well as their school. The Committee, composed of a counselor, the Director of Pupil Personnel Services, and an administrator, reviewed each application and forwarded its recommendation to the counselor and to the school's guidance director. Each counselor whose renewal plan was approved was free to negotiate with the guidance director in his/her school for up to five hours of release time per week and, in special situations, a block of time not exceeding two days. Arrangements were also made with the college to award Continuing Education Units for completion of the activities for each renewal topic. In addition, the school system developed two certificate programs, one in career guidance and another in group work, which required participants to complete several competency-based modules. Upon completion of a renewal topic, counselors were required to demonstrate their proficiency in the renewal area in order to qualify for the CEU's or the certificate(s).

In practice, counselor response to the renewal program was enthusiastic. Several teachers also became interested and *participated in the career guidance and group work certificate programs. Some counselors chose to do their programs by themselves, but the majority set up weekly brown-bag luncheon meetings in which they shared their experiences and learnings with each other. This group sharing helped to sustain their motivation, and provided broader insights and ideas then might normally be experienced by single individuals. As increasing numbers of people experienced the program and applied new ideas and skills to their work, they began to serve as consultants to those who went through the program later. Their insights and practical know-how proved to be very helpful to the "newcomers."*

An ad hoc group of counselors was appointed to review regularly the operation of the renewal program, to suggest changes and revisions, and occasionally to eliminate some of the topics from the program that were judged to be "too thin" or "ineffective." The Committee members also reviewed all new materials for the Counselor Renewal System which they received from ERIC/CAPS bi-annually. They also encouraged the staff to suggest other materials to be considered for inclusion in the System.

In a questionnaire distributed at the end of the first two years, the majority of the counselors expressed the belief that the program had been "very worthwhile"--not only for helping them to acquire new skills, but for "...turning us on, getting us off dead center, and creating a climate wherein we were anxious to share new ideas and experiences."

Barriers to Professional Renewal

To expect that all counselors will engage in self-renewal or that all organizations will support and encourage professional renewal is simply to ignore reality. Many barriers exist within ourselves and our organizations which act to quash our motivation and inhibit attempts to refresh our knowledge and skills.

When efforts to be innovative, when efforts to propose a departure from regularly scheduled activities that will result in new experiences and awarenesses and skills meet with stumbling blocks and failure, it behooves the professional staff to identify what is wrong and what forces are operating to inhibit such attempts. Identifying what are the barriers to renewal is the first step in being able to deal with them.

Barriers in the Organization

The following examples illustrate some common kinds of organizational barriers that work to obstruct efforts of individuals toward professional growth and renewal.

Management style. All organizations have more-or-less-established ways of enforcing their policies and a history of the kinds of options available to their employees. How the organization manages these functions influences greatly how the staff will respond to opportunities to improve their professional knowledge and skills. In the authoritarian setting where decisions are made at the top and where the staff carry out orders without having been involved in the decision-making process, the motivation for self-growth experiences usually is low or nonexistent.

Efforts at self-renewal are also probably doomed to rapid extinction if they go unrewarded--either verbally, financially, or with a change in work activities or status. While much of the reward from renewal efforts is personally gratifying, extrinsic rewards can do much to increase employee satisfaction and sustain and encourage motivation toward further professional growth.

The administration that is committed to excellence in professional services and that practices ongoing involvement of all personnel will be more apt to exhibit understanding of and support for professional growth and renewal. And when the staff feel that they have an important "say-so" in the kind of programs offered, they are more likely to be stimulated to pursue individual avenues of growth, as well as to participate with others in planning renewal experiences for personnel with like interests and needs.

Money. "We can't afford it!" This is one of the most common administrative rejoinders and is very effective in stopping arguments before they get started. On the surface this statement appears unarguable, but in fact it suggests that something is awry in priority setting, communication, and planning. Blame for lack of funding for renewal efforts cannot be laid solely on the administration. The presence of this barrier means that (a) there is no organized plan for renewal in the organization, (b) the administration does not understand or support staff development programs, (c) the staff have not communicated to the administration their development needs, (d) the staff have not reacted favorably to or taken advantage of previous renewal attempts, or (e) the staff have not demonstrated that previous renewal experiences have made a difference in their attitudes or behaviors. Both professional personnel and administrators have responsibility for making sure there is allocation in the budget for staff development and renewal.

Stigma. Strange as it may seem, in some organizations participation in staff development or renewal programs is reserved for individuals who are considered to be inept, lacking in skill, or slated for extinction.

Such a viewpoint toward renewal represents a grievous misunderstanding of the concept. Every effort should be made to dispel this attitude from the minds of all members of the organization and to promote renewal as positive, enhancing, and necessary, as well as a right and a privilege for everyone.

Total responsibility on the individual. An organization which acts on the assumption that professional growth and renewal are the responsibility of the individual is "copping out" on its own responsibility, and the inherent dangers are several. First, chances are good that rewards for such efforts will be obscure, thereby minimizing individual interest and effort. Second, professional staff are so busy that such efforts are continually shuffled to the bottom of the stack of things to be done. Third, such a stance implies that competencies which are adequate now will also be adequate for the future and, further, suggests strongly that the organization is not being responsive to changing student and staff needs. Fourth, and this is probably the most insidious effect, staff who do overcome the "stigma" barrier and strike out on their own may be doing so out of self-interest thinly disguised as professional caring. The experiences they choose may have nothing to do with the needs of the organization or of their clients, but the effort makes them "look good" and wins points when merit raises are in order.

Single focus: conventions. Often the only source for renewal is attendance at professional meetings or conventions. And such participation is usually spread among professional staff in such a way that one particular individual may have the opportunity to attend only every third year or so. Financial support for professional attendance is not being disparaged here; rather, dismay is being expressed that such activity is the only perceived avenue for professional growth. Beyond that, when a staff member returns from such a meeting, little effort is made to determine the value of the experience in terms of new knowledge, new skills, or new insights. Most returnees are greeted with, "How did you enjoy the convention?" or, "Did you have a good time?" The writers know of one "professional" person who boasted openly that he had been to seven conventions and had yet to attend a meeting! Clearly, when the organization demonstrates its belief that its responsibility for renewal begins and ends with allowing individuals to attend conferences, then it is creating a barrier to the many-faceted approaches to renewal.

Too much of a good thing. In contrast to the inadequate behaviors of organizations in the barriers mentioned so far, there is the organization that provides inservice programs at the drop of a new trend. We know of some staffs that feel "inserviced to death" and greet each new prideful administrative announcement with barely concealed (if concealed at all) groans of displeasure. The administration boasts of how well it provides for its employees and has difficulty understanding their reluctance to participate.

Several factors may be operating to produce such resistance: (a) the quality of previous inservice training has been poor, (b) the staff have not been involved in planning the program, (c) the staff have had no orientation to the program, (d) the timing is poor (i.e., other essential tasks must be accomplished immediately), (e) the staff don't feel that they _need_ the program, and (f) no effort has been made to relate the program to the goals and objectives of the institution or the department.

One of the purposes of renewal efforts is to upgrade competencies and acquaint professional staff with important and interesting innovations. But care must be exhibited in the choice of focus and in the quality of the program, or planned inservice experiences will acquire a distasteful aspect to those for whom they are designed.

The "no time" syndrome. Organizations that expect their guidance personnel to pursue renewal efforts on their own time and with their own money are organizations whose staffs will not renew. There is _no excuse_ for refusing to provide release time for counselors to read, to consult with their peers, to plan and participate in inservice experiences, and, yes, to attend professional meetings and conferences. Only through such activities will they be able to refresh their knowledge and skills and keep them up-to-date with changing client needs. Lack of release time is a serious barrier to renewal efforts and implies that the organization is focused only on the tasks of today, unconcerned about long-range goals and a responsible future.

The reader probably is aware of other barriers in organizations, and the foregoing are simply suggested as the most common forms of organizational reluctance to plan for systematic and meaningful programs of staff development and renewal.

Barriers in the Person

While the organization can raise barriers that thwart or dampen efforts to improve professionally, counselors themselves probably create even greater obstacles to their own growth. Everyone who has ever conducted a workshop will testify to the broad range of responses in any group of participants; it is easy to note which individuals are enthusiastic, willing to experiment, anxious to reach out, and which ones are passive, dependent, nonparticipatory--simply putting in their time. What causes people to resist new experiences and to eschew opportunities to enhance their professional skills? As with any obstacle, to identify it is to take the first step toward overcoming it. The following paragraphs describe some common barriers that operate both intrinsically and extrinsically to inhibit efforts toward professional renewal.

Psychological comfort. How pleasant it is to do what one has always done in the same way one has done it! No risks, no rocking the boat, no unknowns. While such a work pattern can be dull and lifeless, and graphically illustrates the "daily grind," some counselors just plain prefer things that way. Acquiring new skills means changing one's behaviors; increasing one's knowledge has the potential for creating dissatisfaction with what is. Both of these outcomes require a willingness to upset the status quo, and this calls for energy and some risk-taking--which this sort of helping person shies away from. Thus, the stage is set for resistance to new programs or practices, and such a counselor remains secure in the same comfortable old rut while the real world moves on.

Self-doubt. Inherent in any venture to acquire new competencies is the notion that we will succeed, but all of us do not have that degree of self-confidence. Doubt about our abilities to learn the information, complete the task, or gain the skill usually takes the form of denial of the need for change--another comfortable, self-defeating behavior. Protecting our self-image causes us to be afraid of new challenges, and thus we withdraw from change and are unmotivated to grow.

Lack of purpose. The person who does not utilize professional development opportunities should step back and take a hard look at why he/she has entered a helping profession. If the goal was to get out of teaching, or to have summers off, or to save money, or to engage in a stop-gap occupation on the road to something more desirable, then there is reason for lack of commitment to excellence in performing the tasks. Such an individual really doesn't care and is liable to be extremely cooperative: "Is that the way you want it? Okay." "This program is probably as good as any other." Individuals who have not related their choice of occupation to meaningful personal goals will not be motivated to take steps to improve professionally and will exhibit only half-hearted efforts in planned professional growth experiences.

Isolation. Helping professionals who work in rural or remote areas can experience real problems in their efforts to gain new skills, simply because of where they are. Location of work setting might be considered to be an organizational barrier, but we propose that the isolated counselor who cites distance as the cause for not engaging in self-renewal activities is relying on an excuse. We know of a counselor who works in the bush of Alaska who is as "up" on what's new and as well-versed in new counseling approaches as any professional in a teeming city. Isolation makes the task more difficult, to be sure, but not impossible for counselors who are committed to enhancing themselves and providing the most useful services for their clients.

Lack of information. Here again one might say the responsibility for providing information rests with the organization, but we believe counselors on their own can do much to overcome this problem. Some professionals simply do not know of the tremendous variety of choices available to them for updating their knowledge and competencies. That they make no attempt to find out is the real barrier, for the sources are numerous. The long term consequences of working from the same knowledge base year after year--unaware of the exciting developments taking place in our profession, of dramatic discoveries through research, of innovative ideas and approaches that produce sought-for outcomes--are dismal: obsolescence of professional practices, lack of productive self-appraisal, decreased responsiveness to client needs, routinization, and submerged creativity. Availing oneself of up-to-date information is one of the hallmarks of the true professional.

Imperatives for Counselor Renewal Programs

The following imperatives speak to the overriding importance of counselor renewal. Individually they identify specific reasons why counselor renewal is urgently needed. Collectively they provide a rationale for counselor renewal becoming a major imperative for organized guidance programs.

1. Counselor renewal is a must if counselors are to assume the new responsibilities and leadership which are being asked of them.

A changing society generates new problems and needs, most of which involve people. How effectively counselors respond to these issues depends upon their desire and ability to renew their skills and knowledge. Only through renewal will they be able to assume new responsibilities and be contributive to the human condition.

2. Counselor renewal is a shared responsibility of the individual counselor and the organization.

Counselors must individually assume responsibility for their renewal as professional persons. They must possess the basic interest and motivation to renew and enhance their skills and knowledge. Individual counselors, however, cannot go it alone. They need the backing of the system in psychological commitment and in practical support through finances and logistics.

3. Programs for renewal must be futuristically focused.

Counselors need to use the present to prepare for the future. Renewal programs should assist counselors not only to update old competencies but also to acquire competencies in new areas. Monitoring emerging areas of need and providing programs that prepare counselors ahead of time to respond to those needs will help organizations and individuals to avoid crash programs that are unplanned, poorly executed, and temporary.

4. A comprehensive plan is a requisite of all counselor renewal programs.

Counselor renewal programs should evolve from a thoughtful analysis of the needs of individuals and of the systems in which they work. Careful planning enables the process to become self-renewal for the counselor and program-enhancing for the system. Unplanned, directionless programs can only provide short-lived benefits which do little to augment the strength of individuals or of the system.

Recommendations

Broadly stated, passive phrases like "must be developed" or "should be planned" leave vague the responsibility for accomplishment of specific tasks. This section is intended to pinpoint responsibility and suggest which individuals or groups should assume leadership in implementing the imperatives for counselor renewal.

State Supervisors of Guidance

1. Establish statewide priorities that communicate the importance of local counselor renewal programs.

2. Obtain state funding to underwrite the development of local counselor renewal programs.

3. Actively solicit Federal funds to be used in support of the development of local and statewide programs and resources for counselor renewal.

4. Establish a dissemination network in the state that reaches to the farthest community to provide up-to-date information on new programs, new practices, current research findings, staff development opportunities, and the like.

5. Devise a means whereby each school/district/county submits program resources and evaluative data from local inservice training and renewal programs.

6. Develop an inventory of statewide physical and human resources that can be utilized in renewal efforts.

7. Become an active participant in national networks for sharing effective renewal methods and materials such as the ERIC/CAPS S^3 (Systematic Sharing System) and the annual national New Imperatives for Guidance conference.

8. Engage in continuing self-assessment and renewal of personal knowledge and skills.

9. Participate actively in establishing policies and legislation which underwrite counselor renewal programs.

Counselor Educators

1. Infuse in counselors a positive attitude toward lifelong learning and continuing self-renewal.

2. Provide counselors with a broad perspective toward new activities and opportunities to develop skills in a variety of counselor roles, i.e.,

group counseling, consultation, change agentry, leadership.

3. Assist counselors to acquire skills in the use of information systems as a means of acquiring information on innovative counseling programs, approaches, and resources.

4. Assist counselors to prepare and update regularly a systematic plan for personal and professional development and renewal.

5. Engage in continuing self-assessment and renewal of personal knowledge and skills.

6. Participate actively in establishing policies and legislation which underwrite counselor renewal programs.

Directors of Guidance

1. Obtain administrative support for the establishment of a systemwide counselor renewal program.

2. Conduct and regularly update a needs assessment of district counselors to ascertain their needs for renewal.

3. Stimulate the development of a renewal programs targeted to identified counselor needs, involving counselors themselves in the planning and implementation of the programs.

4. Provide appropriate rewards for counselor participation in the renewal programs.

5. Engage in continuing self-assessment and renewal of personal knowledge and skills.

6. Participate actively in establishing policies and legislation which underwrite counselor renewal programs.

Counselors

1. Assume personal responsibility for self-renewal.

2. Create a systematic plan for continuing professional development and renewal.

3. Aggressively seek out opportunities to broaden and enhance personal knowledge and skills.

4. Participate enthusiastically in organizationally-planned renewal programs.

5. Become a strong root force for needed change and innovation in the organization.

6. Participate actively in establishing policies and legislation which underwrite counselor renewal programs.

Summary

Counselors are on the bubble. A changing society is demanding that they extend the areas in which they provide help. Can they meet these demands? There is no certain answer to that question. But a systematic program of counselor renewal can help to equip counselors to confront creatively the challenges before them. Renewing counselors are alert, resourceful, and proactive. They are likely to rise above the bubble.

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13 personal perspectives—past and present

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PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES--PAST AND PRESENT

C. Gilbert Wrenn

This article deals broadly with some of the cultural factors that have influenced the development and focus of counseling services. Beginning with the 1920's, the author offers personal reflections on the changes wrought by social, technological, and psychological events in the counseling field. He then examines existing social movements in a number of areas such as education, family life, the status of women, and the use of leisure time, and suggests their possible implications for counseling in future decades. He concludes with a list reflecting his own views of counseling's achievements to date and the hopes he entertains for its future.

At the outset of this brief chapter I want to make a statement that will displease some readers. For fifty years I have fought a losing battle against the parallel use of the words "counseling" and "guidance." I have argued that counseling is part of a guidance program, that the use of the term "counseling and guidance" does not make semantic sense. But now let me try a new approach--"counseling" is a complex professional function and "guidance" is the support system for the counselor as he or she facilitates the client's resolution of his or her problem or developmental need. Yes, I know, the book is about guidance. The word is central in the title. But what you do not know is that when Garry Walz and Libby Benjamin submitted a number of questions that they thought I might consider, they were all about counseling and counselors. Perhaps they realized that this was what I am most familiar with! In any event, in this chapter I will be primarily considering counseling.

The Expansions of Counseling

Counseling in our society has expanded enormously over the decades, both vertically and horizontally. Vertically, the expected competence of the counselor has grown to demand preparation at the graduate school level. The minimum expectation is a Master's degree, which often requires more than one year of graduate work. This preparation extends for a steadily increasing proportion of graduate students in the field to a Doctoral degree. It is most often basically psychological in nature, with supervised practice or an internship required.

The distinction between "counseling" and "counselor" must be heeded. Counseling is a human relations function, performed by people in many settings, but all too often by people ill-prepared for the intricacies of human behavior or the ethics involved. This function is often only a part of the worker's major responsibility, because he or she is a teacher, a minister, a social worker. A counselor is a person for whom counseling is a major responsibility, often a full-time responsibility. A person assuming such a role in society should be prepared for the task in terms of psychological understanding and experience under competent supervision. The individual should also understand the ethics of his or her relationship to client or group on the one hand, and to employer or institution on the other. Unfortunately, many self-titled "counselors" do not have this professional preparation or these professional understandings.

Horizontally, counselors, both the well qualified and the less qualified, operate in a wide range of settings--not only in schools, where in earlier decades of this century they were often called "guidance workers," but also in colleges and universities, employment services, rehabilitation services, hospitals, and mental health centers. The term counselor has become all too popular, so we have real estate counselors, insurance counselors, consumer counselors, and so on ad nauseum. A few years ago I wrote that counseling has become popular, that counselors are on the bandwagon, but that being there makes them more vulnerable. Both the legitimate and the psuedo counselors become more subject to brickbats and rotten tomatoes. I quoted General "Vinegar Joe" Stillwell, who once commented to younger officers who were seeking promotion, "Gentlemen, the higher a monkey climbs on a pole, the more he exposes his rear." Such popularity also means that "counselors" often listen to the crowd more than to the music; hence the multiplication of so-called counselor services. (The strengths and weaknesses of such diversity are commented upon more fully in an article of mine [Wrenn, 1977a].)

My major emphasis in this chapter is on the cultural factors that influence the development and the focus of counseling within some given time span. Counseling doesn't just happen. It grows out of individual and institutional needs at a given time in our social development (or "change" perhaps, since development connotes movement in a known direction). Too often, counseling is not a response to contemporary needs but to the needs of the period in which counselors were prepared. Unfortunately, counseling is as subject to social lag as is any other profession. A most unfortunate phenomenon, because, unless counselors respond to the contemporary needs of clients emanating from the client's contemporary world, they are no counselors at all.

From Whence Counseling Came

The comments to follow will be personal reflections. I am sorry about that, but a scholarly and totally satisfying treatment would require a full chapter or a book and it would also be repetitive. Full chapters and full books have already been written on the development of counseling and of guidance (Miller, 1961, especially Chapters 2-6; Miller, 1973; Shertzer & Stone, 1968, Chapter 2; Shertzer & Stone, 1971, Chapters 2 and 3).

I have lived through the almost complete professional growth of counseling--since the middle 1920's--and have written extensively about counseling over these decades. (My first three professional articles were published in 1928 and 1929: "Factors Determining a Child's Moral Standards," "Initiating a Guidance Program in a School" and "A Simple and Efficient Test Program." These were lively topics of that period.) But one person's experience and knowledge are a very inadequate representation of the total life of the times. The reader will have to bear with me in this inadequacy.

The 1920's and 1930's

In the 1920's we were recovering from the various shocks of World War I. Returning servicemen had developed changed perceptions of life and its meaning, of other morals, and of other cultures, both the culture of military life (and death) and the culture of other peoples. People wanted to be happy, the "flapper" period was a sign of the times, affluence was in the air, money was important. (Remember, these are personal reflections, subject to the ravages of fifty years of unconscious selective perception.) Education became more important because psychological testing had been used in the military services (the Army Alpha, for example) and society was shocked at the many low "intelligence" scores. The *Stanford-Binet Scale* came into wide use, then the *Thorndike Intelligence Test* as one of the early carefully standardized group paper and pencil tests. (I administered this test to Stanfard University applicants at 50 Stanford Testing Centers all over the State of California during the late 1920's and early 1930's. I administered the test, using carefully standardized procedures and timing, and my wife Kathleen scored them. Thus we paid our way for many pleasant Spring trips!) Stanford started using this test in 1924. By that time test scores had become important in all sorts of educational and placement situations.

Then came the stock market crash of 1929, the rapid crumbling of our total financial structure, and the Great Depression of the 1930's. Only those who have lived through the period can appreciate how important money was then! In 1936 I was invited to a position at the University of Minnesota, after eight years of service at Stanford (four years post-doctoral). The salary I was *pleased* to accept was $4000 for a 12-month administrative year--it was $400 more than I had had at Stanford and a promotion to Associate Professor to boot! Times were hard at Minnesota, too; in 1937, at age 35, because they couldn't afford a raise in salary, I was promoted to full Professor as a reward!

Younger readers may find it difficult to appreciate the sharp rise in the degree of intervention by the Federal government in the personal lives of American citizens, caused by the grave economic and personal crises of the times. It seemed appropriate then, for only the Federal government could save banking, businesses, and the actual lives of thousands of people. These interventions were not withdrawn after the depression crisis had passed, for the World War II crisis was then upon us. By now the "habit" of wide-ranging Federal intervention and subsidization was established, a habit which took firmer hold in the 1960's and became a disease by the 1970's! To illustrate: Federal regulatory agencies publish their regulations in The Federal Register. In 1937, the Register printed 3,450 pages of regulations; by 1973 this had jumped to 35,591 pages; by 1975 the Register contained 60,221 pages, the specific demands of 24 major regulatory agencies, and cost $3.5 billion per year.

Psychological testing increased greatly, both in range of content and in usage. As an example, the present Counseling Center at the University of Minnesota was called the University Testing Bureau until about 1938 or 1940 when E.G. Williamson became Dean of Students (I am not sure of the exact wording of his title) and John G. Darley became Director of the Center. Their book, Student Personnel Work: An

Outline of Clinical Procedures, appeared in 1937 and was very influential. Many so-called aptitude tests appeared (actually measures of general intelligence couched in language appropriate to a given vocation), and two interest tests were widely used: the "Strong Vocational Interest Blank," 1927 (E. K. Strong, Jr., was co-chairman of my Ph.D. committee), and the "Kuder Preference Record--Vocational," 1934. Kuder later became the editor of a new journal which he founded upon the royalties from his test, Educational and Psychological Measurement, again influential. Bernreuter (1931) and Bell (1934) (both classmates of mine at Stanford University) appeared with their tests of factors in personality. Two projective tests widely used during this period were the "Rorschach Inkblot Test" (1921) and the Murray Thematic Apperception Test" (1936). It was, the late 1920's and 1930's, an age of tests. Even I came out in 1935 with a simple-minded "Study-Habits Inventory"--which by 1978 had sold 1.9 million copies.

So during these two decades, counseling, which was barely breaking out of the classroom where teacher-counselors saw individual students for one or two periods a day, remained heavily loaded with a vocational choice emphasis and a stress on vocational information, to which great input was given by the publication in 1939 of The Dictionary of Occupational Titles. One new emphasis was on matters of educational choice (of courses, of curricula which the student was intellectually capable of handling) introduced by the 1926 book of William Martin Proctor, Educational and Vocational Guidance. Another 1920-40 emphasis was the already mentioned heavy dependence by counselors upon psychological tests. A third assumption of counseling, growing in part out of the second, was the tendency to consider a client in fragments--intellect, special aptitudes, emotional pattern, interests, and so on. Seldom was the client seen whole, seldom the start made where the client felt himself/herself to be. More often counseling began where the counselor told clients that they were.

The 1940's and 1950's

In this period our nation was convulsed in the agonies of World War II, the Korean War, and their aftermaths. Great social and technological changes occurred, but it seems unnecessary to detail these. They have been recounted so frequently. It is enough perhaps to suggest that many professional counseling changes took place and they did so within the matrix of significant changes in our total society. World War II; the atomic bomb; the Korean War; apprehension over Russia; great leaps forward in technology, medicine, and psychology; larger numbers of women in the work force--the list goes on and on.

This period revealed rapid growth in both the numbers of and the professionalization of counselors and counseling psychologists. It saw them also operating in an increasing variety of settings. The war periods and the years following witnessed the greatest use of psychologists and personnel selection techniques of any period in our history. Clinical and counseling psychology came of age. Doctoral curricula were developed for them; state certification and licensing protected both them and the public; professional diplomas, similar to those for medical specialists, identified those deemed most competent by their peers. They were employed in colleges and universities, hospitals, rehabilitation agencies, employment services, and in private practice. Codes of ethics for psychologists in practice and for those in research were established. All of this activity grew out of (1) the employment of so many thousands of psychologists in World War II, (2) their growing sense of competence and service, and (3) the demand for them following the war experience. (Again, these professional developments are more clearly outlined in my 1977 article, previously cited.)

The numbers of student personnel workers in colleges and universities expanded as well. The demand was enormous for people to assume these roles following World War II. This demand was caused not only by the much larger number of students on a given campus, but also because many of these students were war veterans who were accustomed to receiving many and varied professional services. The University of Minnesota, the site of my professional contributions from 1936 to 1964, played a leading role in the preparation of such workers. This was because of strong teaching departments in student personnel work and counseling psychology, in both educational psychology and psychology, and because the University student personnel program represented a wide scope of student personnel and counseling services for supervised practice and internship. With the strong post-war demand for central coordinating officers to integrate various student services on burgeoning campuses and with so few who were professionally trained prior to the war period, many unprepared people were made specialists overnight. They became Deans of Students. Some were former athletic coaches ("they understand students and can manage them"), some were general administrative officers ("they know how to keep the boat from rocking").

Professional organizations in college and university student personnel work had been established prior to this time of strong demand: the American College Personnel Association, ACPA (emerging from the National Association of Appointment Secretaries), in 1924; the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, NASPA, in 1919; the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, NAWDAC (formerly the National Association of Deans of Women, NADW), in 1916. The first of these, ACPA, which developed some strengths during the 1930's, faltered, of course, during the war period. Then in the later 1940's this organization grew in professional ways and finally, in 1951, became one of the strong charter divisions of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, APGA. (I was President of ACPA during 1947-49, and even then we had a sense of power and significance. University presidents noticed us!)

School counselors were being better prepared and were more generally accepted during the post-war period. In 1953 the American School Counselor Association, ASCA, was founded and became the largest of the divisions of APGA. A big boost for school counseling came with the passage by Congress in 1958 of the National Defense Education Act, NDEA. Russia's Sputnik (first space satellite) really shook us and the Act was intended to help counselors recognize "superior students" and, if possible, get them into the technology stream to assist in the development of counteractive space technology--an Act of Defense. It soon became apparent that such specialization could not be developed without upgrading counseling for everyone. (This sounds like the George-Deen Act of 1938 and the George-Barden Act of 1946, both designed to promote the counseling of students in vocational education, but which soon became counseling of students in general.) Over the next few years hundreds of NDEA Institutes were subsidized to prepare counselors at the graduate level, and the numbers of school counselors more than tripled within seven years.

The 1940's saw the emergence of a strong new personality-counseling theory (Counseling and Psychotherapy, Carl Rogers, 1942, followed by Client-Centered Therapy, 1951). The contrasting behavioral counseling of the 1950's and 1960's had its primary support in Fred Skinner's 1953 book, Science and Human Behavior. These two theory-practice approaches have given great impetus to the counselor's perceptions of the nature of human behavior. I think they have moved us forward from the measurement-clinical emphasis of the 1920's, 1930's and part of the 1940's. The rather slight psychoanalytic ventures into the field of counseling were also given perspective in the client-centered and (later) existential concepts. I have expressed before my belief that the whole-person, humanistic, and affect-centered approach is not antithetical to, but only complementary to, the exterior, behavior-oriented, fragmented, and specific-task-oriented approach. Neither treats all kinds of behavior, all kinds of persons. Together they cover a wider range of need and situation than does either one by itself. My point of view is mine alone, of course. I was once described in terms that might have been an insult to some, but a description that I read with satisfaction:

> (Wrenn's) major influence has been in effectively articulating a centralist position in counseling. He has been able to bring unity and order to the many diversities in counseling theory and practice. By identifying common threads among unlike positions and by abstracting pertinent, usable ideas and practices, Wrenn has created a model which has much meaning for many counseling practitioners. (Shertzer & Stone, 1968, p. 38)

The 1960's and Early 1970's

What can be said of the turbulent late 1960's and early 1970's that the average reader does not already know? It is assumed that the reader has accepted the implicit conclusion that the nature of counseling, its movement from stage to stage, was affected by:

(1) the shaking up given to moral-value structures that followed World War I and World War II;

(2) the economic and personal insecurity and the increasing degree of Federal intervention that accompanied the Great Depression;

(3) the nature of and need for counseling caused by enormous increases in the proportion of people enrolled in both high school and college;

(4) the support given to the selection and preparation of school counselors by Congressional Acts in 1938, 1946, and 1958;

(5) the development of a psychological technology and of clinical

analysis;

(6) the publication (not heretofore mentioned) of increasingly specific and projective occupational information by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the United States Employment Service, and the United States Bureau of the Census;

(7) the professional promotion of two and perhaps three (developmental psychology) theories of human behavior.

If the reader can assume that these broadly social, technological, and psychological events have influenced counseling, then he/she will have no difficulty in seeing why counseling has changed in accordance with changes in the culture of the last two decades. The Vietnam War angers and the spillage over into civil rights angers, and the refusal to accept authority for authority's sake, had a marked influence upon counseling and counselors. These value thrusts made their way particularly into the roles played by student personnel workers in colleges and universities and by parents in the home. Generally, they pinpointed the marked gap between those attitudes and values assumed to be realities by adult professionals and parents, and those attitudes and values that seemed real to youth. In blunt terms, this period suggests an alarming impotence of counselors and student personnel workers during the 1960's.

This same reality gap and unawareness seemed apparent when we faced the addiction to illegal drugs of both the 1960's and the 1970's and the alarming increase in the use of alcohol among youth in the 1970's. We did not seem to understand two things. One, something is causing these desperate attempts to escape present realities. Two, it takes specialists to handle treatment of such addictions. It takes up-to-date knowledge. Love and sympathy and listening are not enough. Five years ago I co-authored two small books on drug usage by high school students and wrote half a chapter on drugs in my The World of the Contemporary Counselor. Before I would consider myself competent to write on that subject again I would have to master the rather substantial research literature of the past five years.

What am I saying here? I am saying that, in spite of more counselors and more extensive preparation of counselors, those in the field did not seem to understand youth's angers and disillusionment or, understanding them, did not know how to deal with them. Counselors were professionally prepared, but not enough socially and emotionally prepared. The tempers of the day caught too many counselors off balance, not equipped with psychological and management skills, not possessing appropriate appreciation of the angry emotions of youth.

Partly as a consequence of such inadequacies upon the part of some, counselors have become defensive. They have been slow to see that they must modify their roles to include more than students (colleagues and parents), that they must increase their awareness of the world around them, the world of happenings, the world of the pressures and frustrations of their clients. The adults need help now, too. Are we up to that?

Present Social Movements and Their Portents for the Future

In this third section of this chapter I will range widely over social, economic, and value changes that I think now have, and will continue to have, impact upon counselors or upon any helping professionals. Sometimes the impact will be upon their work as counselors, sometimes upon themselves as citizens or as persons. I will doubtless omit some dimensions that are important to the reader. All I can reply is that these are among the most important to me. In fact, they represent the topics that I will deal with in a seminar at the University of Maine this summer (1978) entitled "Social and Value Changes in America that Affect the Helping Professions." Space limitations dictate that I will present each such dimension or change in only two or three paragraphs, sometimes only in a sentence or two.

Education

It is obvious that changes in the structure and function of formal education will be of great significance to counselors in schools and colleges. (Over 123.6 billion was expended upon such education in 1975-76, an enterprise involving 60,647,000 students and 3,140,000 teachers and educational staff members.) Most of what is happening is well-known, but let me comment upon a few changes that I think of as particularly significant.

Community colleges have become a major component of our educational structure. (In 1977, community colleges had an enrollment of approximately 4,310,000 full- and part-time students.) With over one-half of this enrollment being students over age 22, such institutions have contributed greatly to a second fact of significance: the increasing return of adults to school or other forms of education (17,059,000 persons in some form of adult education in Fall, 1975, with those over age 35 almost equal in number to those under age 35). *Counselors with specific preparation for these sorts of students are in short supply*. (For some delightful reading of adult learning, get on the mailing list of *The Royal Bank of Canada Monthly Letter* (free) and ask especially for these back issues: "On Being a Mature Person," "On Reading Profitably," "What Use is Education," and "The Beauties of Learning." Just address the bank in Montreal.)

A related influence is the apparent effect that a heavy dependence upon television learnings has upon the reading and writing abilities of young people. Yale Professor A. B. Giamatti makes an anguished and eloquent plea (*Yale Alumni Magazine*, January, 1976) for better understanding and use of our written language. Harvard's David Harman writes that conclusions drawn from several surveys indicate that something over 50 percent of our population is unable to cope with basic reading tasks, regardless of level of formal education completed. *Yet schools and colleges do very little to integrate classroom learning with television learning* in spite of the fact that high school graduates will have spent at least 20 percent more hours in front of a TV set than in a classroom. "Alternative education," the allowing of school credit for learnings outside of school, is growing in acceptance and, again, schools and colleges must learn to integrate school experience with nonschool learnings. Counselors can play an important role in these newer relationships, as they can in stressing the importance of right brain learning experiences (see Graham Berry, 1975); helping students meet what is often the apathetic disillusionment of the 12th year of school (see Lois Bailey, 1975); or giving some unique attention to gifted students (see Jack Fincher, 1976).

Sometimes changes in education to make it more democratic to put the cart before the horse. Theodore Gross (1978) writes sadly and rather bitterly of the outcomes of the open-admissions policy adopted by the City College of New York. A much greater diversity of students enrolled, but the college was not ready for these students. The liberal arts program was totally inappropriate for these new students. The vessel was not suitable for the new contents. I think of this now when I read of President Carter's nation-wide program of vocational training for youth. Will the jobs be there when the young people complete training? Or will they experience only bitter disillusionment?

The Family, Marriage, and Sexuality

Changes in this area are fully as significant for the counselor as are changes in education and schooling. Perhaps more so. Certainly the family, marriage, and divorce may affect the child, the youth, or the adult client more than any other single factor in the social structure.

The birth rate is also of considerable concern to school or college counselors. Their jobs are dependent upon the flow of clients. For example, in 1985 there will be 20 percent fewer high school graduates than in 1975. The birth rate, however, operates in rather uneven cycles. A rise in birth rate can be anticipated for the next few years, because the girl babies born during the 10-year peak period following World War II are in their prime childbearing period of life. If these young women bear an average of two children each, the number of annual births could reach 4,000,000 by 1980, approaching the postwar peak of 4,700,000 in 1957. Factors affecting a woman's ability to control the size of family could, of course, affect this expectation in either direction. All professionals in school and college work should watch the slope of the curve in birth rate.

As a member of the Resource Committee of the Governor's (Arizona) Task Force on Marriage and the Family, I attended a recent regional conference held by that agency. Bernice and Morton Hunt of New York City were important speakers for me. Together they presented twelve myths and twelve realities about the family, marriage, and divorce (on the last topic, see their 1977 book). I will report on only a little of what they (and others) have said.

It is widely held that "the family" is enduring, but in a drastically changed and changing family pattern. For example, in 1975 there were over nine million single-parent households, and of that number 7,200,000 were households headed by women--incidentally, an increase of almost 30 percent of the number in 1970. (That still leaves 84 percent of families with two parents.) Census data of 1975 show the largest number of divorces ever recorded, over one million, and the smallest number of weddings since 1969. Eighty percent of those who are divorced remarry. So children are in families, 98 percent of them, but there are wide differences of opinion regarding the quality of present-day family life. Both the Hunts (earlier mentioned) and Mary Jo Bane (see Bane, 1977) dispel some of the myths regarding the great superiority of the families of a few generations ago. We tend to idealize the past. For example, we bewail the decreasing number of extended (3-generation) families, but the percentage of such families in 1970, six percent, is the same as the percentage in colonial America. What divorce does to disrupt families today, death did in earlier times. A century ago two-thirds of those who died were under age 65; today only one-third die young (under 65). The death of a young parent is final in the life of the child, whereas the remarriage of a divorced parent brings another parent into the home. And so on for other statistics that refute myths regarding the family of a century or less ago.

There can be little question, however, that certain social and psychological factors in our society affect present-day family life.

1. Crowded urban living.
2. Both parents working full-time outside the home.
3. Single-parent homes for one-sixth of the families

and probably more than one-sixth of the children in the country.

4. The fragility of the mobile, nuclear family. Present-day families are more easily affected by sharp crises or disagreements or events which, if they occurred in an extended family, might be cushioned by some of the other family members. In the nuclear family, such upheavals must all be absorbed by the parents and whatever children they have, and no one else. Under such conditions each new trauma may increase the fragility of the interdependence among the members of that family.

5. Changing patterns of sexual behavior and family expectations. These changes have resulted in increasing numbers over the past several years of so-called illegitimate children, abortions, and cohabitation. On the other hand, more young people than ever marry for the first time after age 25 and want no family or only a small family. In 1975, 60 percent of men aged 20-25 and 40 percent of women in that same age range were unmarried. (This figure represents an increase of almost 50 percent for women since 1960.)

6. Violence in the home, with a seeming increase (it may be only more accurate reporting) in battered children and battered wives. Richard Levy in his book, Wife Beating--The Silent Crises, reports that 28 million wives are abused physically, abuse ranging from occasional slaps to severe beatings--4.7 million wives belong in the latter category.

7. Interchange of roles between husband and wife, resulting in part from wives working, in part from women's increased independence.

People are *born* male and female; they *learn* masculinity and femininity. This dislocation of traditional male and female roles is intensified by the increasing willingness of men or women who have homosexual attractions and engage in homosexual behavior to identify themselves.

Just this morning (March 2, 1978) I heard on TV of the election to the San Francisco City Council of a clearly self-identified homosexual. This is probably a "first" in a major city. This man identifies not only with the Gays in his city, but also with other minority groups; he possesses a strong desire, for example, to champion the cause of the elderly people of that city. Such a man is a *person* first, with the usual range of abilities and interests. He is *not* "a homosexual"; he is a man who is different from many others in one dimension of his life, his sexuality. No man or woman should be labelled totally in terms of one dimension of the whole. I find myself getting angry as I think of how we so often give demeaning labels to people who are different from us. My anger is directed at myself as well as others, for I'm sure that I have, upon occasion, described a person in a manner that would, if he or she heard, damage his or her self esteem. At this point, I feel less anger than shame.

There are several ways in which counselors can respond to these varied and unsettling family conditions, and here I would speak directly to the reader/counselor.

1. In counseling, attempt to get at least a small glimpse into the home and parental conditions of your clients so that you may understand

better their behavior in school and their feelings about themselves.

2. Recognize that divorce is not the child's fault, nor does it mean that home conditions are worse after the divorce. They may even be better. Nevertheless, children or youth are very likely to be lonely for the parent they feel they have lost, and so be gentle and understanding with them in that dimension of their life. Do not stigmatize the child from a divorced family, even in your own thinking.

3. Be sure that there is someone competent to give sex instruction in the school before you propose such a move to anyone. This is a sensitive subject, but studies show that unwanted pregnancies are least among girls who have had sex instruction.

4. Study thoroughly and then propose a class on decision-making with regard to readiness for marriage, readiness for becoming a parent. What factors should enter into such decisions? Again, locate an appropriate teacher of such a course. The best teacher may not be any of the counselors. (A sensitive and powerful statement on parenting is given by Professor Richard G. Bovbjerg, under the title, "You Have Given Us Your Children, What Have You Done?" It is to be found in the University of Iowa "Spectator," sometime in 1977.)

5. Develop some experiences in caring for children, for older people, for the handicapped. (This is one of Bernice Hunt's suggestions--also made in another context by Margaret Mead.) Arrange for some kind of weekly experience in a home for the elderly, a school for the handicapped, a class in a nursery school or kindergarten. One can learn to care by engaging in caring behavior. One learns to care in a different

way by observing a caring person as a model. Can a counselor or a teacher act as such a model?

Status of Women

This movement within our society is important of itself, not only with regard to its impact upon the family. We are finally reaching the point where, almost at least, we are seeing a woman as a person first and as a woman second. We are moving toward equality, although we have not reached it. This is true not only in the United States but in several of the developed countries of the world as well. In 1974 I wrote a paper for the International Round Table on the Development of Counseling, to be delivered at the University of Cambridge, England. In this, I stated value changes as I saw them in this country and compared them with value changes in 16 other countries as reported to me by professional people, most of whom were my former students. In nine of the sixteen countries the status of women was generally similar to that in the United States.

We have also Title IX in education, legislation which insists that equal opportunities be given in schools to boys and girls. Some of the implementation of this law looks rather silly when carried to its logical conclusion, but the overall effect is healthy. Few activities will be restricted to men--not any if the law has its way.

We find in the newspaper almost every day that some new so-called "male" occupation has been invaded by a female who is succeeding. As a matter of fact, the whole field of occupations is open to women, providing they can stand the discrimination that is still present. Women still get, in many cases, less income than men who are holding similar positions, and fewer promotions and fewer administrative jobs are given to women than to men. So there is still discrimination.

We cannot generalize, it is true, but certainly there is less distinction between men and women now than was true a generation or two ago. Some of the changes, of course, are true for only certain strata of our society. Some are true for only a few societies of the world. But the movement is on and it will not go backward. It will go forward.

Since both men and women will be reading this book, let me have a personal word with the women readers.

Women, to me, are something very special. I am very persistent in my belief in the equality of women and men. I fight for nondiscrimination, equal rights in all areas--economically, socially, vocationally. I am a member of NOW.

But this is not the whole story. I think women are more than equal. They have special qualities which men lack. Women--my mother, my wife, several "daughters"--had or have qualities that no man can possess. They are nurturant factors in my life, while I am a succorant being in my relationship with them. The women of my life have given me a sense of significance that no one else could have given, no member of my own gender. It is not that they have made me feel superior because of my larger build, that I have (or have had!) certain kinds of physical strength, that I have freedom from monthly disruptions. It is that they have contributed to me what I would not otherwise have (careful now, there are feminists about who want only equality!)--sensitivity to beauty of things and people; "intuition" as a complement to rationality; gentleness combined with assertiveness; awareness of the nontangible beauties of life; ability to tolerate pain, both in small things and the intense pain of childbirth; lovely physical curves of body as opposed to the male's stark angularity.

I am identifying the qualities of women that I love and respect, qualities that do not make them inferior or dependent, but make them superior to me. Are we losing an appreciation of these special qualities as we fight for the social and economic equality of women? "Feminine" to some feminists suggests an inferior, dependent status. But not to me. "Feminine" is a beautiful word, suggesting that women have some qualities of life that men possess in small quantity. I am a humanist; personhood and the wholeness of the person are paramount to me. But women have invaluable qualities of being that very few men possess. These qualities arise in large part from the fact that women are different--different not only physically and biologically but in the intent of the female of our species. For example, women must possess greater sensitivity because their survival depends upon it rather than upon size and physical strength. Women are nurturant;

the survival of the species depends upon their so being. Women are aware of the importance of interpersonal relationships; without this heightened awareness more children would be crippled and imposed upon.

In supporting the equality of persons, whether male or female, could we not retain some of the more valuable attributes of femininity--partly societally-conditioned but partly genetically-conditioned? I am afraid of winning the battle but losing the war. Cannot I, as a man, look to women for an abundance of qualities which I possess in short supply? May I not only love the women in my life, but respect them for some attributes which come to them naturally, but which I must work to possess? If I am fighting for "humanness," may I not assume that they contribute some qualities better than I, and I contribute some qualities better than they? It seems ridiculous to me to assume that "equality" of men and women means that they are alike, when, of course, they are not.

We are at a stage in the evolution of the human species where such questions are paramount. What is the "women's movement" fighting for? To gain some acceptances, only to lose others? I wish for something else, to gain some equalities and to retain other superiorities.

Because of space limitations I will state and discuss very briefly four other social or value movements that I think relate directly to a counselor's effectiveness as a counselor.

Youth

There is a high rate of unemployment among youth, especially youth of ethnic minorities, and a high rate of drug usage generally, especially of alcohol, cocaine, and marijuana. No counselors worth their salt should need to be reminded that up-to-date knowledge of both of these conditions is critical to adequate counselor performance.

Relation of Work and Leisure

For those who do not engage in post-secondary education (and for some of those who do) proportionately fewer and fewer jobs are available that provide workers with very much self-fulfillment, sense of service, or opportunity to be creative. These satisfactions must be sought in leisure-time activities, the off-work hours of the day and the weekend. Counselors must engage students in life planning, to prepare them to use leisure in self-fulfilling ways. From here on in our society, occupation or work planning is only part of the story.

Birthrate and Population Growth

I have already suggested why knowledge of birthrate has vocational significance for the counselor. Total population growth is also important, for in 1975 when the census data revealed an annual growth in the total population of eight-tenths of one per cent, one-third of that increase was through immigration--more than one-third, I suspect, if illegal immigrants had been included. So both birthrate and immigration rate are of concern--and are difficult to predict. The present rate of childlessness is at an all-time high in our country--in 1975 it was 20 percent of married women aged 25 to 29 and 40 percent of those aged 20 to 24. And the desired number of children per family is dropping also, from an average of 3.1 in 1965 to 2.1 in 1975. So the possible 4 million births in 1980 may not occur because those most eligible for childbearing may simply not want to bring children into what they may see as an overcrowded, inflationary, and violence-ridden world. I do not agree with them--I think that being a parent provides for the development of certain dimensions of maturity not otherwise available. But then, I am not a prospective mother.

Older People and the Aging Process

The focus here is upon both a social phenomenon and an inevitable personal process, both currently drawing much public attention. The very number of not-young (over 65) in our population is increasing each year. People are living longer. More middle-aged and older people seek out education, are counseled, seek to make themselves useful--and happier--by serving the needs of other people, both old and young. They are a larger responsibility of society and of the various helping professions than at any previous time in our history. We are also realizing that older people possess a vast potential of wisdom, judgment, and experience that could provide a significant contribution to society, a potential that is as yet largely untapped.

The aging process in individuals begins at birth. Counselors who deal with clients in middle age or who are themselves middle-aged should know how to start slowing down the aging process. While not directly on aging, two well-written and interesting books by Robert Glasser (1976) and Eda La Shan (1973) are good references for anyone counseling or facing middle age. And, of course, don't miss reading Gail Sheehy's _Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life_. I warmly recommend this--but you have probably already read it!

Three Social Phenomena

Let me next present three social phenomena that I think a counselor should keep track of in order to be a loyal citizen.

The resources and agonies of urban life. This involves increasing awareness of the great reservoirs of knowledge and beauty in museums, libraries, art galleries, concert halls, parks of cities; also, the incidence of violence and crime, the struggle with pollution, and the attempts at conservation.

Creeping inflation, the power of labor unions, production for rapid obsolescence, the deadening control of government beaurocracy. These all sound negative, don't they? Well, they are, but they are a reality and we must assume responsibility for reducing their negative impact upon society.

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The growing interdependence of nations. This means that Americans must keep up with the conduct of foreign affairs since this nation is interdependent with other nations; it is no longer true that others are merely dependent upon us. We must watch what happens in other countries and how we are relating to them. An American is truly a citizen of the world, a part of the whole. We must be both understanding of others and protective of our national interests.

Three Great Movements of Thought

Now I want to present three great movements of thought in our country in a manner that will show their interrelatedness. They represent three attempts of the American (and, of course, of people in many parts of the world) to find the significance of himself/herself as a person; not as a counselor, not as a citizen, but as a person. These movements might be described in the following terms:

A Marked Trend Toward Self-Examination: Earnest Attempts to Understand the Physical, Cognitive, Affective, and Unconscious Self.

Movements Toward an Increased Appreciation of One's Relationship to the Universe and its Creator.

Attempts to Accept Death and Dying As a Normal Dimension of Life and to Understand Evidences of a Continuing Life after the Death of One's Own Present Body.

To me, the foregoing are related searches of man for himself or woman for herself, as we exist now and will exist in the future. Few of us are unaware of the large popular acceptance of Transcendental Meditation (TM), and of the fact that somewhere between 50 and 75 percent of those who take the course maintain their daily meditation schedule because they benefit from it, not because they are followers of Maharishi Yogi. As far back as 1975, *Time* reported that 30,000 individuals a month were signing up for TM with 6,000 teachers in 370 TM centers. *Your Erroneous Zones*, by Wayne Dyler, sold in the millions. There are dozens of similar books, some with better "press" than others, but all have been market successes, even with such "homey" titles as *How to Hang Loose in an Uptight World* or *Go See the Movie in Your Head*.

Not far removed from this type of self-finding are some of the moves toward greater awareness of one's spirituality. In a curiously paradoxical fashion, one horn of this movement involves a search for a noninstitutional religion or faith--involving Eastern mysticism, for example. The other horn is a gathering around very conventional denominational religions, with the most "fundamental" growing the most rapidly. Then there are moderates among Church families who are more concerned with caring behaviors and social justice than with creed and ritual. The overriding truth is very apparent, however. Much honest searching is underway, as well as the seeking of security around the well-known.

This leads naturally, it seems to me, to an almost equally high degree of interest in death, dying, and life beyond death. Such books as those by Elizabeth Kubler-Ross (for example, On Death and Dying) and those by Raymond Moody (for example, Life after Life) have been read by millions! Last Spring, to my surprise, I found the latter book in bookstores in three European countries.

I wrote a one-page highly personal statement on my belief in death as a beginning, not an ending, which appeared in the Personnel and Guidance Journal in the Fall of 1975. I have received more correspondence from this one-page contribution than anything I have written in my fifty years of writing. There is a kind of widespread hunger here. Our son, Robert Wrenn, Director of Counseling Services and Professor of Psychology at the University of Arizona, teaches a course there on "The Psychology of Death and Loss"--which is signed up in advance two to three seminars ahead. People want to know not only how to accept death as part of life for themselves, but also how to deal with the death of a loved one or with the grief that comes with loss. Many good books on grief have appeared. I suggest an extremely helpful small book (Morris, 1972).

Concluding Note

There is no way to write a summary for such a wide-ranging chapter as this has become. It would be a summary of a summary. So I will try to conclude with a statement on what I see as counseling's achievements and counseling's hopes for the future. This is a large order. I shall fill it inadequately. Each reader will want to add his or her points of achievement or hope to the list. Please do. Then act as though you meant it.

Achievements

Counseling has become recognized as a professional speciality in education and in other institutions of society.

Counseling has developed a reasonably adequate blend of attention to both the cognitive and the affective aspects of the person.

Counseling has developed a growing technology of psychological assessment and educational and vocational information processing.

Counseling has developed a sense of the ethical principles involved in its relationships with people, institutions, and members of its own profession.

Counseling has learned how to deal almost as effectively with the developmental and decision-making needs of its clients as with their remedial needs.

Counseling has accepted group counseling and various uses of groups for self-learning purposes as part of its armamentarium.

Counseling psychology has become established as a substantial area of applied psychology.

Counselors (the majority?) have learned to accept without shock the raw emotions and widely divergent behaviors of their clients.

Hopes

We hope to learn how to deal with the developmental needs (not therapeutic needs only) of adults as well as we have learned how to deal with the developmental needs of children and adolescents.

We hope to learn how to encourage right-brain development of students so that their spatial, musical, creative, imaginative dimensions will be given as much attention as their verbal, mathematical, and cognitive dimensions.

We hope that in colleges and universities there will be full acceptance of the "new student development" concept in which the student personnel worker contributes to an effective overall learning environment for students and faculty.

We hope that school counselors will perceive it as a fundamental part of their role to contribute to the personal and professional needs of faculty, staff, and parents, as well as to the developmental needs of students; that they will embrace as clients the adults who affect the growth of children and youth so that they contribute their knowledge and skills to the total school.

We hope that counselors and members of all the helping professions will know that their caring behaviors toward others are fully as important as their professional knowledge and skills. Sometimes to show caring for another is all that one can do; sometimes it is the only thing that counts. I have some specific thoughts on the meaning of "caring" (Wrenn, 1977). I think that caring for and about others is possibly the most crucial element in the continuing existence of our society.

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